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ABSTRACT

Presented are 15 papers on topics relevant to Project PRICE (Programing Retarded in Career Education), a project designed to develop a methodology by which school districts can educate school, community, and family personnel to provide more relevant instruction and supportive services to retarded students. The following titles and entries are included: "The Nature of Mental Retardation" (R. Altman); "Teaching Mildly Retarded Pupils" (M. Chandler); "Vocational Potential of Retarded Individuals" (D. Brolin); "Preparation of the Handicapped for Careers" (D. Brolin); "Considerations in Implementing Career Education Programs" (B. Gooden); "Mainstreaming for the Secondary Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR)--Is It Defensible?" (G. Clark); "Suggested Teaching Strategies for Classroom Use" (L. West); "Values Clarification" (L. West); "The PRICE Competency Unit" (D. McKay); "Locating Instructional Resources for Career Education of EMR Students" (J. McElmurry and S. Miller); "Community Resources in Career Education for EMR Students" (D. McKay); "Family Contribution to Career Education" (L. West); "Media" (C. Anderson); "The Role of Evaluation in the PRICE Career Education Plan" (D. McKay); and "Alternative Techniques of Classroom Assessment--Possibilities for Evaluating EMR Students in the Classroom" (M. Salamack). (SBH)

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SELECTED PRICE TOPICAL PAPERS
FOR CAREER EDUCATION

Working Paper No. 8

Donald J. McKay
Editor

February 1977

Department of Counseling and Personnel Services
College of Education
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Columbia, Missouri 65201

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PREFACE

Project PRICE (Programming Retarded in Career Education) is a U.S. Office of Education, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped project designed to develop a methodology by which school districts can educate school, community and family personnel to provide more relevant instruction and supportive services to retarded students. The project's three major goals are:

(1) To develop an inservice/staff development model to educate regular and special education personnel to provide effective Career Education services to EMR students in K-12 programs;

(2) To identify and develop appropriate types of techniques, materials, and experiences so that school personnel can work more effectively with EMR students within a Career Education context; and

(3) To complete and disseminate the resulting inservice/staff development training program so that it can be utilized throughout the country by school systems desiring to adopt the Career Education approach.

Twelve public school systems have participated in the project over a three year period to field test the Project's model, techniques and materials. We are grateful for the hard work and fine assistance rendered by so many individuals in these districts, in helping to design the kind of inservice training package needed to effect the necessary changes in educational services for retarded students.

This Working Paper contains several topical papers on relevant PRICE workshop subjects written by project staff and advisors during the first project year. These papers were succinctly reduced in length during the second project year and included in the PRICE Self Study Guide with shorter articles for workshop participants. However, we have had several requests from the field to present these topical papers in a Working Paper for those who wish more in-depth information on these topics. This publication attempts to meet that need.

In Part I of this publication, information relative to the causes and classification of mental retardation and the characteristics and potentials of these individuals is presented. Since many professional workers not trained in this area have so many misconceptions about these individuals, this section should be beneficial in remedying this problem.

In Part II, information centering on Career Education is presented. The PRICE career education competencies are listed and problems and needs in implementing career education are discussed. Considerations in implementing such programs are outlined by a school administrator. Cautions about the appropriateness of mainstreaming until a solid career education curriculum is available are presented by a special educator.

In Part III, PRICE Staff discuss strategies that can be used by classroom teachers with retarded students. The use of values clarification is felt to be a valuable tool in their education. The PRICE Competency Unit (PCU), a unit of instruction for teaching the PRICE competencies is outlined.

In Part IV, sources of instructional materials at the regional and national level are presented. The many resources available for career education within the country are identified. The important role of the family relative to each PRICE competency is outlined. The contribution and importance of media is discussed to assist teachers in selecting appropriate types for their situation.

In Part V, the evaluation methods used by Project PRICE relative to student, workshop, implementation and outcome aspects of a career education program are presented. Various types of alternative evaluation techniques that can be used to measure student competency attainment are discussed.

We hope the contents of this Working Paper will be of value to professional workers throughout the country who are engaged in providing career education services to retarded and other educationally handicapped students.

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Part I

MENTAL RETARDATION

THE NATURE OF MENTAL RETARDATION

Reuben Altman

Probably the single most valid generalization that can be made about the mentally retarded relates to the extreme hetereogeneity that characterizes that population of individuals. In considering the approximately 7 million Americans who would currently be labeled mentally retarded, we are including infants and geriatrics, every level of socioeconomic status, urban and rural residents, and persons of every ethnic background, from citizens who are productively employed to individuals who are so severely impaired that they lack even the rudimentary skills of toileting and language.

This paper presents that information which represents the most widely accepted current consensus in the field of mental retardation. For example, the content of definition and classification reflects the position of the American Association on Mental Deficiency (A.A.M.D.), the major professional association in mental retardation with membership representative of each of the many disciplines concerned.

In the 1973 revision of their Manual on Terminology and Classification, the A.A.M.D. states that "Mental Retardation refers to significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning existing concurrently with deficits in adaptive behavior, and manifested during the developmental period."

This definition specifies that the individual must manifest deficiency in two major ways: (1) general intellectual functioning and (2) adaptive behavior. By "significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning" the A.A.M.D. specifies an I.Q. on a standardized individual intelligence test of less than about 70. The A.A.M.D. interpretation of "adaptive behavior" varies as a function of the individual's chronological age. For example, during childhood and early adolescence, deficits in adaptive behavior would be anticipated in: (1) application of basic academic skills in daily life activities, (2) application of appropriate reasoning and judgement in mastery of the environment, and (3) social skills (participation in group activities and interpersonal relationships). In general, adaptive behavior is defined as the effectiveness or degree with which the individual meets the standards of personal independence and social responsibility expected of his age and cultural group. Nevertheless, the important point here is that in order for any child or adult to be appropriately labeled as mentally

retarded, he must show significant deficiency in both intellectual and adaptive behavior.

Similarly, the widely used classification system employed by the A.A.M.D. specifies both intellectual and adaptive behavior criteria for designation of the individual to a level of mental retardation. The four levels specified are: (1) mild, (2) moderate, (3) severe, and (4) profound retardation, Mild retardation is roughly equivalent to the educational term "educable" and is represented by an I.Q. of approximately 50 to 70. Moderate retardation includes those individuals who are likely to fall into the educational category of "trainable" and have I.Q.'s of approximately 35 to 50. Severely and profoundly retarded children generally have measured I.Q.'s below 35 and are only now beginning to receive educational services in public school settings. For the most part, these latter individuals have in the past been relegated to institutional environments due to their more extreme deficits in both intellectual and adaptive behavior.

The etiologies or causes of mental retardation are as varied as the population of individuals represented by the condition. In general, however, the causes of mental retardation may be grouped into three broad categories: (1) organic etiologies, (2) genetic etiologies, and (3) cultural etiologies. Organic etiologies include those causes of mental retardation which are marked by dysfunction in the central nervous system or brain damage and this pathology may result before, during or after the birth of the individual. Such prenatal, perinatal and postnatal conditions that may lead to central nervous system pathology and thus possibly mental retardation are physical injuries from accidents, severe nutritional inadequacies, infectious conditions early in pregnancy, reduced availability of oxygen shortly after birth, and ingestion of toxic agents such as lead or mercury.

The genetic etiologies leading to mental retardation include syndromes inherited by both dominant and recessive genes such as tuberous sclerosis, Tay-Sachs disease and phenylketonuria. Sometimes genetic aberrations occur which are not due to inheritance and result in mental retardation such as Down's Syndrome or mongolism. It is important to bear in mind that all of these organic and genetic etiologies in mental retardation are relatively rare and typically restricted to those more severe cases of mental retardation, comprising the lowest levels of intellectual functioning and adaptive behavior.

By far, the great majority of cases of mental retardation (at least 75%) are those whose deficits in intellectual and behavioral adaptation are due to cultural etiology (substandard or lower economic environments) and they comprise the category of mild or educable level mental retardation. In order to achieve social and economic independence to the maximum of their potential, these individuals will require specialized educational experiences geared specifically to their unique needs. This paper will concentrate on the personality and learning characteristics of the educable mentally retarded.

Most educable level retardates are not identified as retarded until after they enter school and begin to fail in academic tasks. Similarly, upon leaving school, either through graduation or voluntary withdrawal, many of these individuals no longer maintain the label retarded and tend to accomodate successfully to the social and economic demands of their peer culture. To the degree that the educable level school age child manifests problems in personality characteristics of social adjustment, we need to recognize factors specific to the school setting in which he has been identified and treated as retarded as contributing to his difficulties.

Frequently, behavior patterns and attitudes which were adaptive and reinforced in the child's social milieu prior to school attendance are in significant conflict with the predominantly middle class behavior patterns and attitudes fostered in the school setting. One example of this conflict is dramatized in the area of achievement motivation. The child from a lower socioeconomic background may not have learned or experienced in his environment school related academic tasks as a vehicle toward personal success of achievement. In contrast, educators perceive their role and all school related activities as preparation for maximizing the life potential and personal fulfillment of the children in their charge. This conflict in perspective is heightened further by the fact that the majority of teachers and other professional educators themselves come from backgrounds in which academic achievement was both encouraged and highly reinforced.

Consequently, the educable level child is often perceived as and may be in fact troublesome and disruptive in the school setting. His behavioral problems are likely to be further excaberated by the frustration he encounters in falling progressively behind his peers in school achievement as academic demands increase with advancing grade placements. The result is frequently a child who not only fails to progress satisfactorily in

school, but one who compensates through aggressive behavior, and is characterized by a low frustration tolerance and poor attention. Usually, when the school program is modified through Special Education programs designed specifically to meet this child's unique needs and abilities, the offending social and behavioral difficulties are lessened. In general, this means concentrating on the motivational considerations underlying school achievement and assuring the child successful school experiences by minimizing the discrepancy between his readiness for academic activities and those activities expected of him. It is both interesting and relevant here to note that when failure in vocational settings are reported for educable level retardates, the cause is most frequently related to problems in personal and social adjustment to the job setting rather than lack of ability to perform work skills.

As reflected in his I.Q. score of less than approximately 70, the educable retardate does not perform well on verbal or nonverbal intelligence tests. His mental age consequently lags behind his chronological age and his progress in learning situations not only lags behind that of the school age child of normal intelligence but he also will not likely achieve the sophistication in learning ability or knowledge of his nonretarded age peers. This learning deficit has definite implications for his educational programming and while research results are typically inconsistent, there are some generalizations relative to the instructional needs which appear valid.

One major cognitive skill which is often reported as deficient in retarded children is their ability to transfer the effects of training. An obvious example of our anticipating effective transfer of training is found in teaching principles of arithmetic calculations. We assume that with some limited number of exemplary multiplication problems involving single and multiple digit numbers, the child will then be able to effectively transfer these skills to the solution of any multiplication problem for clearly the principles involved do transfer in application. Yet, in working with the retarded, we find that this transfer cannot always be assumed to take place. As a result, it becomes necessary to demonstrate this transfer of principles to the child and utilize many more examples of the principle involved than would be required with his nonretarded counterpart. In essence, we must make the transfer take place rather than assume that it will.

Another learning characteristic that appears deficient in retardates

relative to nonretardates is the phenomenon of incidental learning. Much of the learning that we normally anticipate to take place with non-retarded school children, particularly in social and interpersonal skills, is assumed to occur incidentally to school participation. That is, we generally do not purposefully plan lessons specifically designed to train cooperation and altruism among children. We assume that these behaviors will develop as an incidental by-product of participation in group projects in class as well as incidentally to social sanctions encountered in day-to-day interactions in the school and home environment. With the retarded child, we are probably remiss to assume such a high degree of incidental learning and must plan purposefully to include such objectives in our preparation for instruction. This same consideration holds true in academic areas where we again should not take incidental learning for granted. It is always preferable with the retarded to take nothing in learning for granted but to carefully analyze our broad instructional goals in advance to be certain that we are attending in the instructional setting to each element of our objective.

Another frequently reported area of learning impairment in retardates relates to a deficeincy in their memory for auditory and visual material. Specifically, we often find a short-term memory deficit which means that material presented may not be recalled by the child following some brief interval of time. The implications for instruction if not obvious are at least crucial. In order to overcome this problem in recall of material, it is advisable that new material be presented with a higher number of repetitions than would normally be required for nonretarded pupils. In fact, it is desirable to bring about what might be referred to as overlearning as opposed to just learning with these students. Rather than cease instruction and move on to something else when some minimal criterion for learning is achieved, it is advisable to continuing demanding evidence of learning and to return the concept involved at least several times after acquisition is assumed to be achieved.

Finally, the ability to generalize the results of learning from the classroom setting to other appropriate situations needs particular attention with retarded pupils. All too often we assume that learning demonstrated in the classroom setting on tasks simulating real-world situations will generalize to those other settings. In working with mentally retarded children, it is preferable if not necessary to actually have the child repeat

the learning criterion in the actual settings in which we hope learning will generalize. For example, we may be making an erroneous assumption if we believe that a child who successfully demonstrates appropriate behaviors in a mock job interview in the secondary school setting will perform as well in a real job interview. It would appear advisable here to include real trial interviews away from the school setting as part of the instructional program for the retardate.

The prognosis for achieving successful social and economic adjustment for the educable retarded is good. As long as we accurately understand the nature of the child we are dealing with and direct our instructional efforts to his unique personality and learning characteristics, we have every reason to anticipate effective and rewarding educational programs.

TEACHING MILDLY MENTALLY RETARDED PUPILS

Marilyn R. Chandler

Mildly mentally retarded learners are basically very much like other children. They have the typical needs of all children for a secure home life, friendships, recreation, self expression, community acceptance and success in school and in a vocation. These pupils for the most part can achieve functional literacy, secure and hold jobs, and acquire personal and social skills to achieve successful adulthood adjustment. A wide range of social and emotional differences may occur in this population of students as functions of their home and cultural heritage and the general richness or deprivation of the environment in which they live. Acknowledging the heterogeneity of the mildly mentally retarded population, there are generalizations that can be made about their ability to learn in school. These general characteristics have significant implications when planning appropriate instruction for them, whether the students are in a self-contained special education class or in an integrated program with other learners.

Two important considerations to keep in mind are that these students will not progress at the usual rate of learning and will not achieve to the same level of knowledge and abilities as their chronological age peers. This means that instruction for these intellectually impaired learners must be based on the individual child's needs and abilities and not on predetermined grade or age expectations or norms that are applied to non-retarded learners. The teacher of the mildly retarded learner must be constantly working to provide an individualized program for these students to achieve their potential and overcome their particular learning limitation.

The generalizations about the learning limitations of mildly mentally retarded learners and the implications for instructional programming are these:

1. The long-range and global objectives for these pupils are not different from those of all children. For example, "Economic self-sufficiency", "Being a contributing citizen", and "An ability to compute with numbers" are goals for <u>all</u> children. However, the expected extent to which these goals are achieved will be somewhat reduced for the mildly mentally retarded student.

For these learners, to reach an ability to compute correctly to maintain checking and savings accounts may be the ultimate goal, not to be able to compute compound interest.

2. The specific goals and objectives for the mildly mentally retarded learner must be stated in small, sequential steps and be based on an analysis of the learner's strengths and weaknesses. These students need to feel success also, and this can be achieved if the learning is in small increments. Instruction should be based on a step-by-step progression, with one skill providing the necessary readiness for the next step. Do not skip steps in the sequence of instruction and assume that the student can fill in the missing gaps.

3. The mildly mentally retarded learner will often exhibit difficulty in transferance and in making generalizations. For this reason, it is incumbent on the teacher to give the learner a wide variety of learning situations in which to practice a skill. Do not assume that because the learner has learned to perform the process of addition that he will be able to apply that computational skill in a problem-solving situation. Teach these students through a wide variety of realistic problems and point out to them the applications of the addition process. Those learning situations should also be as close to reality and as meaningful to the child's needs as the teacher can provide. Have the student write real letters, address real envelopes, and actually mail them (thank you's for a field trip, or letters inquiring about jobs) rather than merely fill in practice pages or do seatwork drill on a letter someone else wrote.

4. Memory deficits that often occur in mildly mentally retarded learners can be overcome by providing learning in small steps, arranging for distributed practice, and providing opportunities for overlearning. Material presented in smaller segments tends to be retained better. Distributed practice or a chance to drill and reinforce a skill spaced over a period of time, rather than a lot of drill in a block of time, seems to foster greater success. Overlearning is the strategy for providing several additional periods of practice and reinforcement even after a skill is seemingly mastered. These principles can be seen operating in the following example: The teacher wants Johnny to learn by rote 10 spelling words taken from his reading material. A daily short practice period is provided to drill on rote memorization and recall of the words and the words are incorporated in handwriting and other language arts

activities during the week. Even after the usual weekly test was 100% successful, Johnny should have short reviews of these words in succedding weeks.

5. Mildly mentally retarded learners have difficulty dealing with many abstract concepts presented in school. For this reason, instruction should proceed from the concrete to the more abstract. A concept may need to be presented in its most basic form and the teacher should be prepared to offer many approaches to the same idea. Explanations may need to be clarified, restated, or rephrased for comprehension to occur. Most learnings begin with concrete manipulative, reality experiences before progressing to the more abstract, complex ideas. Children should be taught to discriminate between two objects, name them, and describe them before being asked to state what category the objects belong to.

6. Mildly mentally retarded learners will often exhibit language deficits. This means that their speech may be adequate (they can articulate properly, etc.) but will not have developed the ability to use more complex sentence structures or deal with categories. For this reason, specific, planned lessons on oral receptive and expressive language should be a part of the curriculum. They need to be taught to handle and utilize the language of the classroom. In later school years, they may need direct guidance on organizing their language into meaningful communication. Do not just initially say to a student, "Now you act out the part of an employee applying for a job." But rather, go first through a rehearsal of the language to use and how to form good questions before doing the role play.

7. Many mildly retarded learners have poor self-concepts and expectancies because of a pattern of repeated failures. The most important requirements for a teacher are to communicate an atmosphere of acceptance and warmth and provide success experiences by pacing learning to the learner's instructional level. The teacher's model of behavior toward the mentally retarded learner is a most crucial factor in that student's acceptance by his peers.

8. The older the student is, the more challenging it is for the teacher to obtain instructional materials that are at the child's ability level and at the same time are of a high enough interest level and peer acceptance level to be accepted by the student. Materials designed for third graders, while on appropriate instructional level, will be rejected by secondary age learners

because of the "babyish" theme and format. Many publishers are now fulfilling this need through the publication of high interest/low vocabulary level materials, but much remains to be done in this regard. Therefore, it is an important teacher skill to be able to modify existing instructional materials or create teacher-made materials to meet these criteria.

The concept of diagnostic/prescriptive teaching should be the guiding principle when instructing mildly mentally retarded students, regardless of the type of class that student is in. This concept implies that the individual patterns of ability and need are the focus for instruction. The steps in the diagnostic/prescriptive teaching process are as follows:

1. The child is studied to determine what specific behaviors or skills he has acquired in a certain area. The teacher would define the area of behavior under scrutiny, for example, "money skills" or "reading comprehension". A narrowly defined area will lead to more specifically useful information, i.e., concentrate on the various sub-areas of arithmetic such as "time-telling", "addition", "word problem solving" rather than the more global area of "arithmetic". Once an area has been identified for study, a teacher gathers and uses all available information about the student's performance to identify what skills the students do have. Standardized test results, teacher devised informal test results, and behavioral checklists are utilized. This step comprises the "diagnostic" aspect of the teaching process. It is necessary for the teacher to know the principles of criterion referenced measurement to be able to utilize testing results and to construct and utilize informal tests and checklists.

2. Specific behavioral objectives which need to be attained are then specified. Once a teacher knows which skills a student possesses, the teacher should formulate a set of specific objectives to be the short-range goals of instruction. For example, after assessing a certain student's skills in telling time and ascertaining that he/she can consistently read clocks correctly to the hour and half hour, but cannot accurately read clocks when other times are shown, the teacher might specify the following objectives for this student: "The student will be able to point to and orally identify multiples of five minutes on the clock." "The student will be able to identify the position of the hour hand as being 'after a given hour.'" "The student will be able to write the correct time notation in multiples of five minutes (e.g. 10:35)". For a teacher to have skill in specifying the next appropriate short-range goals or objectives for a student, the teacher must be aware of the skill

sequences and hierarchy for a variety of academic disciplines and be able to perform a task analysis on a given objective. Task analysis is the process of identifying each sequential step which is essential for attainment of the objective.

3. The teacher then specifies the strategy for reaching the objectives. This step involves a variety of considerations about the student. Which reinforcers and motivators are the most effective with the student? What does the student work best for - tangible rewards, teacher praise, free time? Which are the most effective modalities for teaching the student? Does he/she gain information most efficiently through visual approaches such as reading or looking? Or are tape-recorded lessons the most effective way to learn? What materials are needed to teach the concepts or skills implied in the objectives? What instructional techniques are most efficient to teach this particular student? Does the student learn best if the teacher works with him on a one-to-one basis or does the student prefer a programmed workbook, or is group discussion a better technique? These questions are critical ones in specifying the instructional strategy, or the "hows" of reaching attainment of the objectives.

This "prescriptive" aspect becomes an individualized program for the learner based on his own particular abilities, needs, and ways of learning. Many aspects of the curriculum for mildly mentally retarded learners should be handled through this above approach. However individualized the program for the learner is, do not overlook or exclude group activities and experiences for the learner. For many aspects of the school program, the learner can be accomodated in a group of students with a heterogenous range of abilities. It is important for the teacher to arrange appropraite activities within the group's experiences to meet the retarded learner's abilities. Questions in a group discussion should be geared so all pupils can contribute and participate.

Planning appropriate instruction for and teaching mildly mentally retarded learners are challenges for a teacher. Dedicated and interested teachers receive their greatest rewards when they are able to meet the special learning needs of these students and see them achieve their highest potential.

VOCATIONAL POTENTIAL OF RETARDED INDIVIDUALS

Donn E. Brolin

This paper is intended to reflect the wide range of occupational possibilities available for the retarded student after completing the educational program. Vocational success, however, is highly dependent upon many factors, a major one being the extent to which the educational system has been able to meet the student's needs and develop his potentials as they relate to community living and working.

Underestimation of the vocational potential of retarded persons is a frequent problem they often encounter. One of the major reasons for this is the misconception that those students who have difficulty with traditional academic instruction are poor learners in other respects too. Thus, retarded students are perceived as being able to learn only simple and routine jobs, even though it is widely accepted that academic learning deficiency does not mean the individual has an equal vocational deficiency. The research seems to indicate that, for a majority of jobs, the abilities required to be successful are quite different from those presently required to be successful in school.

Wolfensberger (1972) has blamed society and more specifically, those in the helping professions, for hearing and perceiving handicapped persons abnormally and segregating them "for their own good." He believes professional workers have focused inappropriately on abnormal rather than normal behaviors in the case of handicapped individuals. By labeling individuals into disabilities and attemtping to remediate their weaknesses, we neglect to accentuate the positive and treat them like normal human beings.

The family of the retarded student is also extremely important to vocational success. Family rejection, over-protection, abuse, neglect, and discord are deleterious behaviors to their development. Family acceptance, stimulation, marital stability, and general family cohesion greatly aid in the individual's growth and development. As educators, we need to give attention to assisting the family in helping with the student's career development.

Examples of Jobs Retarded Individuals Can Perform.

There are literally thousands of jobs that past research has found mentally retarded persons performing. Examples are available in publications

such as those from the President's Committee's on Mental Retardation and Employment of the Handicapped, Washington D.C. Some examples of "higher level" jobs found attainable by certain retarded individuals are presented in Table I.

The jobs listed in Table I should support the previous statement that academic (or intellectual) deficiency does not connote vocational deficiency. Intellectual level is not an adequate predictor of their learning potential although it is related to the types and levels of possible jobs. The list of jobs presented in Table I is just a sample of what retarded persons can do if they receive the proper career education.

The program of training and placement of retarded citizens in service occupations by the National Association for Retarded Citizens (NARC), has been very successful. Howard Johnson's, Mariott Hot Shoppes, Schrafft's Restaurant Operations, and Sky Chefs are some of the organizations extremely pleased with these workers and continually ask for more. Special state and federal government projects have also resulted in surprising and pleasing outcomes for these employees.

TABLE I.
Selected List of Jobs for
Retarded Citizens

Card Punch Operator	Engineering Aide	Truck Helper
Carpenter	Sales Store Worker	Gas Station Attendant
Library Assistant	Furniture Repair Helper	Mimeograph Operator
Mail Clerk	Stock Clerk	Mangle Machine Operator
Mail Handler	Groceryman	Wallpaper
Medical Technician	Supply Clerk	Manicurist
Clerk	Telephone Operator	Textile Machine Operator
Office Draftsman	Warehouseman	Shoe Repairer
Office Machine Operator	Upholsterer	Sorter
Photocopy Operator	Sewing Machine Operator	Drillpress Operator
Clerk-Typist	Assembly Worker	Autobody Repair
Cook	Factory Worker	Electronic Assemblyman
Press Cleaner	Seamstress	Nurse's Aid
Elevator Operator	Packer	Welding

Vocational Adjustment Research

Although it has been demonstrated that most retarded persons can reach a highly highly satisfactory vocational level, many research activities and articles indicate a great number are having significant problems in their adjustment. Underemployment and unemployment are constant problems because of: underestimations of their potentials resulting in underemployment, misconception and attitudes of the public and professionals, agency conflicts, lack of sufficiently trained professional personnel to meet their needs, their generally poor level personal-social and occupational skills and training, and limited the performance of many retarded persons is not their intellectual inability but rather the lack of appropriate opportunities.

The Need for Normalization

Segregation is particularly self-defeating in any habilitational endeavor. Education and training that takes place in artificial segregated, non-normative settings, incongruent to that which they're being prepared to enter will be unsuccessful. If educational programs are to be responsive to the career development needs of retarded students, many types of school personnel will need to work collectively so their potentials are more fully developed. The present thrust to "mainstream" handicapped students into regular classes is congruent with the normalization principle. Appropriate career education, i.e., total preparation for life (personal, social and economic functioning), will require considerable realignment of our present services if we are to expect retarded individuals to eventually earn a respectful living in the community. If we recognize the worth and value of retarded individuals and offer the programs and facilities that are as close to normal as possible while treating them as such, we should be able to meet this vital goal.

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Part II

CAREER EDUCATION

PREPARATION OF THE HANDICAPPED FOR CAREERS[1]

Donn E. Brolin

Career Education is a term that has yet to realize a universally accepted definition. Although many individuals still tend to equate the term with occupational or vocational education, many are now conceiving it broadly as preparation for most all aspects of successful community living. Acceptance of this broader conceptualization expands the usual definition of career to include that of citizen, family member, homemaker, student, consumer, retiree, as well as a paid worker and other important roles that we assume throughout our lifetime. Career education is "systematically coordinating all school, family, and community components together to facilitate each individual's potential for economic, social and personal fulfillment" (Brolin, 1974, p. 5).

Project PRICE (Programming Retarded in Career Education) has postulated that a career education curriculum should encompass three primary curriculum areas (domains) and one support area, academic skills instruction. These three domains are: Daily Living Skills, Personal-Social Skills, and Occupational Guidance and Preparation Skills, all felt to be equally critical for successful career preparation. We have identified 22 competencies (see Table 2), each falling under one of these three curriculum areas, which we believe retarded students must acquire if they are to be successful after leaving the educational system. These competencies are based on previous research, experience, and professional opinions, and should be equally critical for other handicapped persons. In essence, we believe that the successful preparation of the retarded student for careers is contingent upon sufficient acquisition of all the interrelated competencies for these three domains.

Career education is of perticular importance in the career development of the handicapped because of the extreme difficulties and frustrations so many of them have in securing and maintaining satisfying employment throughout their lifetime. Handicapped persons need a heavy component of career-directed education; they need it as soon as possible and they will need it throughout their lifetime for different periods of their career development.

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[1]This paper was presented at the USOE's Bureau of Education for the Handicapped Conference on Career Education for the Handicapped at Princeton, New Jersey, January 17, 1975.

TABLE II.

CAREER EDUCATION COMPETENCIES

Curriculum Area and Competency
DAILY LIVING SKILLS
1. Managing Family Finances
2. Selecting, Managing and Maintaining a Home
3. Caring for Personal Needs
4. Raising Children, Family Living
5. Buying and Preparing Food
6. Buying and Caring for Clothing
7. Engaging in Civic Activities
8. Utilizing Recreation and Leisure
9. Getting Around in the Community
PERSONAL-SOCIAL SKILLS
10. Achieving Self-Awareness
11. Acquiring Self Confidence
12. Achieving Socially Responsible Behavior
13. Maintaining Good Interpersonal Skills
14. Achieving Independence
15. Achieving Problem-Solving Skills
16. Communicating Adequately with Others
OCCUPATIONAL GUIDANCE AND PREPARATION
17. Knowing and Exploring Occupational Possibilities
18. Selecting and Planning Occupational Choices
19. Exhibiting Appropriate Work Habits and Behaviors
20. Exhibiting Sufficient Physical and Manual Skills
21. Obtaining a Specific Occupational Skill
22. Seeking, Securing and Maintaining Employment

[1]Brolin (1974).

Career preparation of the handicapped requires all members of the school community to share in each student's career development. If handicapped students are to be served more appropriately and integrated where feasible, regular classroom teachers will need to better understand their needs and how to work with them, be more receptive to having them in their classrooms, and provide them with more relevant instruction. The family and community personnel are equally important in the total career development of each and every individual. This means that much of the education or competency attainment of the individual is dependent on these sources, as well as the school. Unfortunately, in too many instances, both are sorely neglected. No matter how well a student is prepared for a career, he can still fail if the family is not involved and supportive. Preparation of the handicapped for careers is an extremely complex and interdisciplinary task. In most instances, we have much to do before we can say this need is really being met. Some of the main research needs we must attend to if this goal is to be realized are the following:

1. To determine what competencies handicapped individuals really need to be successful in today's social and economic society.

2. To determine how these competencies can be logically and systematically sequenced and infused into curriculum efforts (K-12 and post-secondary).

3. To determine who can most appropriately assist the handicapped student in the acquisition of the various competencies and their specific responsibilities.

4. To determine what experiences and materials are most appropriate in teaching these competencies.

5. To develop resources for evaluating and monitoring each student's competency attainment.

6. To determine the interrelationships of daily living, personal, social and occupational and academic skills instruction in preparing the handicapped for careers.

7. To determine how to motivate, use, and assist regular classroom teachers and counselors (and how to break down the trational roles they have assumed through the years).

8. To compare the various models of career education delivery for their effectiveness in career development.

9. To determine how family members can contribute and be persuaded to a assist in the career education of their children.

10. To determine how community agencies can become more involved, in and out of school settings.

11. To determine how business and industry personnel can be appropriately utilized.

12. To build in a longitudinal research design which will give us continual feedback on the status of former students, their problems, and needs so curriculum adjustment can be made.

13. To discover more jobs that are appropriate for the various types of handicapped and get this information out to the field so it can be used.

14. To determine what techniques are most appropriate for evaluating and training various handicapped types for appropriate jobs.

15. To find out what unique life-career-development needs handicapped persons have and what special assistance they will need to maintain satisfying careers.

The above are just some of the critical areas to which we need to direct our research efforts if handicapped people are to be prepared for meaningful careers. At the same time, we must realistically admit that many handicapped persons will have frequent periods of unemployment but can live in dignity by utilizing this time in work-related activities satisfying to them as total human beings. We as a society must accept them and others in this capacity while striving to assist them in re-entering the labor market.

Project PRICE is currently giving considerable attention to many of the research needs listed in this paper. We would welcome assistance from others who may wish to investigate them more extensively with or without our cooperation. Let us work together so career education can become a dynamic force in today's society, particularly for our handicapped citizens.

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CONSIDERATIONS IN IMPLEMENTING CAREER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Benny L. Gooden

The Condition: The rapid dissemination of ideas and materials dealing with "career education" since that distinctive phrase was popularized by the former U.S. Commissioner of Education, Sidney P. Marland, is clearly indicative of the ability of the educational community to accept new ideas and react to change. Commissioner Marland (1971) proposed a universal goal for American education. This goal emphasized that every young person completing our school program at grade 12 should be prepared to enter into either post-secondary education or gainful employment. Marland did not exclude those who possess some mental or physical handicap, those who are not easily motivated, or those who are a minority group because of an interest which deviates from the norm.

Historically, educators have taught for the mainstream of society. The academies and subsequently the comprehensive high schools attempted to serve a broadly based span of student needs. Gradual evolution of post-secondary education for a high percentage of students led to the promulgation of an unwritten idea that the K-12 school systems were preparing students for something beyond - usually more general education in the form of college or university training. Those who failed to aspire to such heights because of lack of interest or ability became disenchanted with the public schools and called for more "relevance".

Vocational education sought to fill the void which existed in the secondary programs. Vocational training provided much-needed experiences for a large number of young persons who expected employability as a goal from their educational program. Some proponents alleged that vocational education would solve the social and economic ills of the nation.(Rhodes, 1969). Unfortunately, this has not become a reality; and while vocational education accomplishes much, it fails to address the broad spectrum of educational problems which have disenfranchised many young people.

Several national commissions have issued recommendations for changes in educational priorities. These proposals are not of recent origin. The Commission for Reorganization of the Secondary School, Education Policies Commission, The White House COnference all made reference to goals such as

civic responsibility and vocational efficiency. More recently, the National Commission on Reform of Secondary Education directly included career education in three of its thirty-two recommendations (Brown, 1974).

The focus in many current studies lies in the integration or work and school-oriented activities during the period of formal education. Alternativ schools often include options which maximize practical experience in the secondary program. The Panel on Youth of the President's Science Advisory Committee (1974) proposed the alternative of work for students as vitally important. A report on "action learning" emphasizes the potential for youth involvement in service related learning activities (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1974).

The problem of bringing young people and the appropriate occupational or academic training programs together has long been the concern of educators. School counselors have attempted to fill this role and have been marginally successful. It is evident that the guidance staff in most schools cannot begin to acquaint students with the panoply of career possibilities which are available.

Career education theorists have established several models for career development which will meet the needs of any school system. A cursory review of the literature reveals the wide choice of approaches and techniques for establishing and accomplishing career related educational goals.

The Commitment: Local school districts must secure a level of commitment from all parties concerned which will result in the marshalling of resources to design and implement a program of instruction in career education. This commitment must include endorsement by community advisory groups and the active involvement of business and industry in developing instructional activities. A conceptualization of what career education includes must be systhesized from the literature or developed by local staff.

The involvement of instructional staff in the initial stages of planning can serve to reinforce the commitment of administration and board of education. Care must be taken to provide for the evolution of a local program of career development as opposed to a "transplanted" model which was designed for another educational setting.

A Goal-Oriented Approach: All concepts mentioned in the literature as meaningful goals in career education do not adapt themselves well to each local educational setting. While general goals are usually all-inclusive, they fail

to function at the level necessary to facilitate supervision and evaluation.

A set of goals which have assumed universal acceptance and flavored by a set of locally-oriented objectives should be developed to guide the program of instructional acceptance within a general career education context. Locally-oriented objectives must be developed to guide the program of instructional activities and provide the criteria for evaluation activities. The career objectives which meet the needs of inner city students often are inappropriate in rural or suburban communities. Paramount in the determination of goals and objectives is the assessment of student needs and their relationship to adopted goals.

The development of local goals should be accomplished by providing the opportunity for input from community groups, business and industry, instructional staff, and curriculum consultants. Accompanying these goals should be student-oreinted objectives in measureable terms.

Developing Delivery System: Before the conceptual model of a career education program can be infused into a local curriculum, several factors should be considered and are advocated in the literature (Montgomery County R-II Schools, 1974; Tools for Career Education, 1975):

(1) A complete assessment of the current curriculum should be accomplished in order to determine those components which relate directly to the career development goals. These present curriculum components exist in virtually all local educational agencies and failure to incorporate them into a career education program would indicate a neglect of sound curriculum development practice.

(2) Successful practices in career education used by other school districts should be included in local planning. Examples of materials, curriculum guides, procedures and staff development models are available from numerous career education projects throughout the nation.

(3) While commercially produced materials have much to offer, many worthwhile career education activities may be designed with a minimum of expense. A survey of currently available resources will likely result in an extensive listing of instructional possibilities.

(4) Procedures for utilizing resource persons from within the school district by bringing individuals into the school and allowing students to visit remote locations must be adopted and disseminated. Field trips and school visits each present possible problems which must be surmounted in order to maximize effectiveness.

(5) Staff orientation to career education must be accomplished in an ongoing program which will acquaint all individuals from instructional and support staff with the goals, objectives and potential activities

necessary for the desired ends to be attained. Production and distribution of the finest curriculum guides are to no avail if teachers fail to utilize them.

Adaptation for the Handicapped: Mentally retarded students encounter a unique barrier to their acceptance by industry upon leaving public school. Their ultimate success or failure in future employment may well depend upon the quality and quantity of career related experiences provided during their secondary school years.

Career education experiences for the mentally retarded must be planned in view of the distinctive limitations of these students and in consideration of their future occupational needs. However, care must be taken to avoid the creation of an "artificial" environment which will bear little similarity to that encountered upon entry into the job market. A survey of the labor force would likely reveal a significant number of educably retarded individuals who are functioning adequately in the accomplishment of their assigned duties.

Career related instructional activities for the educable mentally retarded student should bear a direct and readily discernable relationship to actual job situations. Much emphasis should be placed on the development of a realistic outlook toward to formulation of career goals and the student's self image. Paramount to the positive enahncement of these goals is the avoidance of an "unreal isolation" of a mentally retarded student because he is not "normal". Certainly, career education activities for retarded students must be more individualized and may vary from those provided for some other students, but the arena of career education is a realm of "common ground" upon which all students may pass.

Project PRICE proposes a tentative solution for the union of traditional education for the mentally retarded and career education. Through involvement of key individuals actively concerned with the career development processes, realistic strategies can be designed to transform mentally retarded students into productive workers. This laudable goal can be accomplished through the inservice development of effective teachers in all fields to such an extent that their superior expertise is made available to all students. If this goal is to be achieved, Project PRICE will merit a prominent place in educational history.

Cautious Optimism: Career Education will certainly be an important part of the evolutionary process as the elementary and secondary education community (historically resistant to change) attempt to assume a posture which will foster the individual needs of every student.

Opposition to career education will come from both outside and inside the educational profession. Academicians will criticize it as unacademic; administrators will fear tort liability, and others will assail its intrusion into industry's domain; but the ultimate beneficiaries will be the students who leave the public schools possessing more than a sheepskin and a smile. These students will be prepared for something more - for work, for self development, for life itself.

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MAINSTREAMING FOR THE SECONDARY EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED: IS IT DEFENSIBLE?[1]

Gary M. Clark

Mainstreaming[2] is a challenging and viable option of educational service delivery for some handicapped children and youth (Clark, 1975). It is challenging because of significant shifts in emphasis which must be made to provide support services rather than direct services to students. Although as of yet there are no reports of national prominence which provide empirical data supporting the movement, the logical and legal bases for such a thrust make it an important option for some handicapped students. However, it is not necessarily appropriate for all handicapped students, some consideration must be given to the population for which it may be appropriate. Smith and Arkans (1974) have done this for the severely and profoundly retarded. This article will suggest yet another population -- the secondary level educable mentally retarded.

When Dunn (1968) drew the issues of special class placement for the mildly retarded into focus for the field and gave impetus to a new era of professional self-analysis, he tried to document his position carefully concerning what types of changes should occur, the nature of the population about whom he was concerned, and the environments in which change could take place. One particular point made was a deliberate exclusion of secondary level educable mentally retarded from the population of concern (Dunn, 1968, p. 6). This exclusion has been overlooked amid the sweeping changes in administrative structures and educational programming which has resulted from a rapid wake of court cases and strong advocacies of mainstreaming. There needs to be a reexamination at this point of some of the basic issues involved as they relate to adolescent educable mentally retarded in secondary school programs. The issues which follow are presented with some support for a particular point of view. They are also meant to be a means by which other viewpoints are able to surface

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[1]This paper is based on an article originally appearing in Focus on Exceptional Children, April, 1975.

[2]Mainstreaming is defined as an educational programming option for handicapped youth which provides support to the handicapped student and his teachers while he pursues all or a majority of his education within a regular school program with non-handicapped students.

Editor's Note: Dr. Clark's paper is generally not consistent with the PRICE philosophy of integrating retarded students when and where appropriate. We believe there are many educable retarded students who can probably be best served in special classes under present-day conditions. It is our hope that with effective inservice training will permit the majority of these students to be integrated for services and career development.

and be considered.

Issue One

Given the logical and legal bases for the movement toward alternatives to special classes for elementary level mildly retarded children, are regular secondary programs as well-suited for absorbing and serving educable mentally retarded students as elementary level programs?

One of Dunn's specific justifications for moving the mildly retarded back into the mainstream of elementary education was the capabilities of regular education to handle individual differences more readily than had been possible in the past. These capabilities were described in terms of trends and practices involving organizational changes, currciular changes, multi-media instructional resources, etc. One could add to this more facilitating environment the wider acceptance of the career education concept.

With the exception of some of the nation's more progressive secondary schools, the same claims for capabilities in dealing with individual differences at the secondary level, particularly high schools cannot be made. Secondary schools are, in comparison to elementary schools, much more inflexible in administrative and programmatic change. For example, high school's resistance to the career education concept is witnessed by the paucity of significant changes in programming since the movement began. Size, diversity, complexity, and the sacredness of the Carnegie unit are some of the obvious barriers to change, but there are other more subtle factors operating, including subject matter area "empires", greater activism in teacher negotiating units, academic competitiveness with other schools, and reduced responsibility for each student's total development.

Issue Two

Given the logical and legal bases for providing for the needs of all students, is the regular class the most advantageous current alternative in providing for the educable mentally retarded at the secondary level?

To discuss this issue and present a point of view, one must make certain assumptions that become basic to arguments supporting that point of view. The following assumptions have been accepted by the writer:

1. The higher one goes up the grade-level hierarchy, the greater the discrepancies among students in intellectual functioning, academic

achievement, social experience and personal maturity.

2. The higher one goes up the grade level hierarchy, the greater the desire and/or demand by students for school to be related to immediate and near-future needs.

3. The higher one goes up the grade-level hierarchy, the greater the need by students to have greater identification and personal interaction with one or two significant adults who by proximity and commitment are readily available for guidance and counseling.

4. A democratic philosophy of education and a realistic philosophy of normalization do not dictate that all persons have the same educational experiences.

Based on a general acceptance of these assumptions, the arguments which have been used against the special class in general can be challenged in relation to the secondary level class in particular.

Argument - Educable emntally retarded students make as much or more progress in regular classrooms as they do in special classrooms.

Response - This argument is based on data from elementary populations, not secondary. On the contrary, there is some evidence to indicate that secondary special class programs have contributed to adult adjustment in the community for their participants (Porter & Milazzo, 1958; Stephens and Peck, 1968).

Argument - Special class placement isolates the handicapped from normal peers.

Response - Secondary classes are not typically as self contained as elementary special classes and are not as vulnerable on this point. Integration (not mainstreaming) in a regular class of music, art, physical education, homemaking and industrial arts has been and continues to be a common practice in junior and senior high school special education classes. In addition, participation in extra-curricular activities as well as both on-campus and off-campus work experiences have added to the special students' exposure to and interaction with nonhandicapped peers. Only in the most restricted cases could this argument be justified against secondary special education classes. Certainly, it does not isolate students any more than some vocational education programs of other academic track options.

Argument - Special class placement stigmatizes the handicapped, resulting in loss of self-esteem and lowered acceptance by normal peers.

Response - Negative perceptions of a group or of individuals result primarily

as a consequence of socially unacceptable or inappropriate behaviors, regardless of an educational grouping (Baldwin, 1958; Johnson, 1950). Inappropriate behaviors within a regular class will just as likely result in greater individual stigma, with accompanying less of self-esteem and lowered acceptance by normal peers. It is interesting that the field has come full circle in this problem. The frustrations and pressures experienced by the educable mentally retarded in regular classes resulted in behaviors which were unacceptable and indicative of poor mental health. The solution was seen to be their removal from that frustrating environment to one which would foster success, reduce frustration, relieve anxiety, and build positive self-concept. What was once seen as the source of the problem is now seen as the source of the solution.

The issue is not whether stigma exists, however, but rather whether the programming itself can demonstrate effectiveness in reducing or eliminating that stigma, raising self-esteem, and increasing the degree of acceptance by the non-handicapped. We do not as yet have adequate data on this for adolescents.

Argument - The very existence of special classes encourages the misplacement of many handicapped persons, particularly children and youths from minority groups.

Response - As long as there are options for placement, there are opportunities for misplacement. With fewer options, misplacement is more likely to occur. If the options only include regular class placement or special class placement, minority group youth will more likely be misplaced into special classes. However, misplacement can be just as possible in regular classes as in special classes, if misplacement is interpreted similarly in both situations i.e., inappropriate content and/or level of instruction. If the special class is kept as one of several options, including learning centers, vocational educational programs for handicapped or special needs students, and mainstreaming with an effective career education component, misplacement is less likely to occur.

Issue Three

Given the logical and legal bases for meeting the needs of all students, are the decision makers who are extending the mainstreaming philosophy from elementary to secondary level giving appropriate attention to the consequences of curriculum focus as a result of their decisions?

Meyen (1974) has stated the problem this way:

> From a curriculum perspective, mainstreaming for handicapped children is presenting new curriculum problems for special educators. Unless we cope with these problems better and quicker than we did those encountered during the special class movement of the 1950's and 1960's, handicapped children will suffer and the field of special education may very well experience a major set-back. . .(p. 3)
>
> Except for preventive measures, and in some cases, corrective measures, special education for most children involves curriculum. With most groups of exceptional children, the focus is on providing an educational program which maximizes the child's performance and not remediating his handicap. (p. 4)

The point of view being expressed in this paper supports Meyen's statement and suggests that it is even a more crucial problem at the secondary level than at the elementary level. There can be no question that the currciulum focus of high school work-study programs for educable mentally retarded youth has been considered more relevant by that population than in previous years, when the curriculum was a "watered-down" academic program. The holding power of the more relevant pre=vocational program has been demonstrated in report after report in not only reduced drop-out statistics but in drawing former students back when they become aware of the new program.

The current curriculum focus in prevocational development and preparation for adult living is based on formal and informal follow-up studies of those who have been in special classes for the educable mentally retarded. This current focus is by no means adequate in terms of scope and sequence, but it is more on target than what is available in general education.

Vocational education, as a component of the regular school program, is appropriate in vocational content, byt deficient in adult living instruction. In the case of general education currciulum or track, former U.S. Commissioner of Education S.P. Marland, Jr. has decried the ineffectiveness of general education and has referred to it as an "abomination" (Marland, 1971). The career education concept was conceived and developed with general education in mind. However, until career education programs are operative and demonstrated to be effective, general education has little to offer but removal of group stigma and the appearance of normalization. If educators are more concerned about normalization and avoidance of group stigma here and now than they are for normalizations as adults and avoidance of individual stigma in the future, their concerns and priorities are questionable. Support for this interpretation

of the principle of normalization is found in a publication by the National Association of Retarded Children (1972). It states:

> Although the normalization principle is useful in many situations, the fact that a technique is normative does not guarantee that it is most effective. The developmental model suggests that program effectiveness should be guaged by the degree to which goals are reached rather than the degree by which procedures are culturally normative. In some cases, normative procedures may fail to foster desirable behavior, whereas specialized procedures may accomplish desired goals.

Summary

Mainstreaming as the only program option at the secondary level for educable mentally retarded adolescents is presently highly questionable for the following reasons:

1. We have no empirical evidence on adolescent retardates to indicate that movement from a partially developed approach (but demonstrably more effective than previous programs) to a new, untries approach is appropriate.

2. The curriculum focus of mainstreaming at the secondary level is not congruous with what has been identified as the needs of the adolescent retarded.

3. The basic assumptions posed for secondary special education programming do not indicate that regular secondary programs or tracks are appropriate.

4. Career education concept programs are not yet adequately established in junior and senior high schools.

5. Support personnel for vocational education teachers, the group most obviously needed for an appropriate mainstreaming approach, are not available.

6. The inflexibility of junior and senior high school policies and goals are not predictive of success for this population.

Implications

Some implications of this position can and should be drawn.

1. Questioning of the appropriateness of mainstreaming at the secondary level for educable retarded adolescents in no way defends the inadequacies of the present special class model. There are tremendous gaps in existing special class programs in terms of curriculum development (scope and sequence) effective instructional approaches, adequate social training and opportunities, prevocational assessment, guidance and counseling, work adjustment training

and placement at appropriate levels of employment. Neither does it deny the probable benefits mainstreaming can provide for a larger number of educationally handicapped youths who have not been eligible for special class placement and have not been adequately served in the regular program.

2. Any school that has the capabilities of flexible school organization, adequate resource personnel and a strong career education commitment should assume responsibility for empirically evaluating alternatives to special classes. Chaffin's (1974) suggested guidelines for administrators who are considering the initiation or expansion of a mainstreaming program should be followed. In addition, the evaluation should focus on the following questions (Meyen, 1974):

a. What benefits will be gained from this alternative over present alternatives?

b. What curriculum restrictions will be placed on teachers?

c. What instructional support services are needed for each student and his/her teacher(s)?

d. What instructional materials are needed to support this student?

e. What curriculum resources are needed for complete programming?

f. What curriculum skills are needed by the special education staff?

g. What instructional skills are needed by the special education staff?

3. The reality of secondary schools rapidly moving into alternatives for special class placement for educable mentally retarded should not be overlooked by teacher education institutions, state departments, and school administrators. The responsibility for training, re-training, certification, and program development must be shared by all in a cooperative effort.

Conclusion

Given the need for improved programming in any organizational pattern -- special class or regular class with support -- the educable mentally retarded adolescent needs a curriculum to meet his current and future needs. A career education approach to curriculum development for this population is the most promising option available at this time. The work-study concept can and should be a part of a career education approach but it should not be considered an end in itself.

The entire notion of career education and what it should be is still evolving, but a recent conceptualization by Brolin (1974) in Project PRICE has the scope and comprehensiveness which may provide the field with the curriculum base it is seeking. If special education and regular education personnel are commited to the goal of preparing educable mentally retarded to meet the basic demands

of adult living, the competency-based approach of Project PRICE will provide the most concrete direction thus far in achieving that goal. Its strength at this point lies in its attempt to delineate competencies and professionals who can/should assume responsibility for teaching educable adolescents in the respective competency areas. With this approach there is flexibility for programming regardless of the administrative placement options.

Until a solid career education curriculum base is available, professionals should move slowly and avoid a bandwagon movement toward any change in programming which dilutes training for the critical competencies needed for adult living. The questions, cautions and issues raised in this paper may be interpreted as a rather negative reaction to the spirit of the times. It is hoped not -- but if so, the writer would stress that the spirit of the times is not limited to mandating of a particular delivery model to the exclusion of all others. Rather, it suggests self evaluation, appropriate goal setting and innovative curriculum development.

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Part III

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNIQUES

SUGGESTED TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR CLASSROOM USE

Lynda West

This topic paper is written for the classroom teacher who asks the questions: (1) What do I do if I have an educable retarded student in my class?, (2) How do I teach without boring the other students?, and (3) What modes of teaching can I use for an integrated class? This topic paper is an effort to suggest some answers to these questions by reviewing teaching strategies used with special education students. Recognizing that every classroom differs with the composition of personalities of teachers and students, some strategies are more appropriate than others. Some students are visually oriented learners, while others may understand the auditory message best. Consequently, if a variety of strategies is used, the chances of successful learning are greatly increased.

Twenty-seven teaching strategies are presented and explained in the following pages. The suggestions may be adapted to fit the subject matter, the teaching style and the interest of the students. Only the teacher is in a position to determine all of the variables, evaluate the suggestions, and adapt them to the situation.

1. *Brainstorming:* This activity is done in small groups (no more than five students) in class. The purpose is to collect ideas, suggestions, etc., relative to the topic being discussed. The rules of brainstorming are: --all ideas are accepted, no negative comments can be made, quantity is important. A representative of each small group could report back to the entire class what the group came up with. Since any and all suggestions are accpeted, it is a no-risk class activity in which these students can participate.

2. *Consensus forming:* Small groups working as a team arrive at a consensus about an issue they were discussing. These students learn from hearing other students discuss and if the situation is relaxed and the rapport is good, they may feel free to participate in the discussion.

3. *Role Play:* All students can learn from acting out situations in which they have an opportunity to try out new roles without real-life consequences or to test out ways they might handle a certain situation. Role playing is helpful in having students view opinions other than their own. It is a good way to show alternatives to situations. These students and their classmates may both participate in this activity.

4. *Visual Aids:* Whenever possible, films, filmstrips, transparencies, cartoon, pictures, objects, etc., can be used for supplementary materials. Visual images help educable retarded students remember and recall things easier. Visual aids can hold the class attention to the topic at hand.

5. *Guest Speakers:* Inviting speakers into the class from the community, agencies, industry, families, etc. to offer expertise and additional information about a topic can help relate academic matters to the real world. These students need to see the direct relationship, it can be the motivation they need. Guest speakers usually hold the interest of ALL students.

6. *Tours/Field Trips/Visits:* Relevance is a key word in education today. Through tours, field trips or visits (semantics depend on the site of the visitation) a teacher may show the class what concept he/she is teaching. This is often a good culminating activity for a unit.

7. *Discussion:* Class discussions or group discussions can provide reinforcement, repetition, and explanation of a topic which may be difficult for these students to conceptualize or comprehend. Any further discussion lending additional information may make the concept clearer.

8. *Demonstration:* If it is possible to demonstrate <u>any part</u> of a concept that is being taught, it should be done. These students, as well as other students, may absorb the information being discussed while the demonstration is being given because it makes an abstract concept concrete. They may also demonstrate to a teacher that the concept is understood, while at the same time they may not be able to write down the expected answer on a quiz.

9. *Explanation:* Teachers should always attempt to explain a particular concept. Relevancy, simplicity, and vocabulary are important in explanations. Other students may at times better explain to these students than a teacher, due to the vocabulary.

10. *Questions and Answers:* These students are often reluctant to ask questions particularly in an integrated class. Even if a teacher encourages questions and is willing to take the time to answer questions it may <u>not</u> be enough. An alternative to this can be to assign a panel of students (i.e. three students) to ask questions which may be unclear. That is, they would represent the class and propose questions which the class, in general, may need to have answered. In this way, no one directly would be hesitant to ask questions.

11. *Recitation:* Some of these students may be uncomfortable reciting in front of class. Hearing from others can reinforce a concept or it may be a review that they needed. Still other students may recite as an individual or, more likely, as part of a group.

12. *Review Material:* It is important to remember that these students may not remember material as easily as other students. Therefore, reviewing is seen as a necessity. A teacher may wish to put the material on a tape the first time it is presented, a student could listen and review while in the special class before returning to the regular class. Some form of review is highly desirable.

13. *Hands-On Activities:* Any activity which makes learning a concept concrete is an excellent teaching tool for these students. The activity may be individual or group in nature; that is the student may work on an activity with or without others depending upon the type of activity chosen. If the teacher decides to use a group activity, careful group selection is essential. Instructions for the hands-on activity must be <u>clear</u>. Demonstrations and explanations are important here.

14. *Oral Reports:* Using oral reports as a teaching technique can overlap with presentation of new material or reviewing past material. It may be a form of recitation. Essentially, it is reporting back to the class some information which can be useful in learning a specific concept. Oral reports are helpful to these students to hear or participate in, also recognition that he/she contritbuted in its preparation is important. Planning and preparing reports is a good teaching tool.

15. *Peer Tutoring/Buddy System:* Identifying a student who is capable and willing to assist other students is important. Knowledge of personalities and talents is basic here. Pairing off reduces threat, can instill confidence, reduce distractions and provide the individual with attention needed to help these students. Explicit instructions to the tutor, planning and feedback to the helper can be very beneficial. There are numerous factors to consider in using the buddy system, but it is one of the <u>most</u> effective and practical tools mentioned.

16. *Practice:* The more opportunities provided to these students to practice higher learned concepts, the better the chance of the student retaining the skill. Practice can be using the concept in a variety of ways to keep the task from getting dull. For example, practicing the physical-manual skills a number of activities could be used to achieve the desired goal.

17. *Lecture:* Lecturing is probably the most over-used form of teaching but it is potentially one of the best! The success of this form of teaching relies on the lecturer to present his/her point clearly, enthusiastically, quickly and without complexities which may confuse the issue. If the teacher is enthusiastic and positive about the topic, it may be the motivation which these students need in order to learn.

18. *Panel:* When three or more students study a particular topic, they can explain, demonstrate, comment, report, etc. on the subject. Together as a panel they pool their talents and can effectively be learning through studying a particular topic and teach others the results of their own learning. Panels offer EMR students a chance for participation, success and accomplishment. Teachers may want to assign the panel members who can work effectively together.

19. *Simulations:* Simulating a situation is much like role-playing. It provides these students with the opportunity to watch other students act out a situation they might find themselves in someday. By simulating circumstances, and working out solutions to problems in those circumstances, learning takes place. EMR students need not just watch and listen, they may also participate. It is important that the teacher select students wisely for simulations and role play.

20. *Games:* Utilize any games which will offer practice, reinforcement, application of a concept to these students. It is a good break from the routine class activities and can be a reward or a motivator in addition to a learning tool.

21. *Learning Packages:* The general format for a learning activity packet usually includes: (a) rationale, purpose, or goal, (b) behavioral objectives, (c) general directions, (d) required materials, (e) pre-test or assessment, (f) learning activities. required or optional and (g) evaluation or posttest. These packages are time saving for the teacher. They can save valuable planning time. Peer tutors can use them with EMR students in a regular class.

22. *Interviews:* Interviewing any person who can shed light on a subject can be beneficial for the entire class. Different people using different vocabularies, different approaches, a new face and a new voice can add vigor and life to the hum-drum of daily routine. Teachers using classroom interviews find them a good way to utilize community resources.

23. *Projects:* Activities which take more than two class periods can be called projects. They are extended activities which relate to one topic and may relate to one topic and may involve an integration of several topics which relate to the understanding of a total concept. Projects may be attacked and completed in groups of two or three students or individually. A variety of projects may be used by students in the same class. This gives these students a chance to participate and succeed on an equal basis with the rest of the class.

24. *Contract Teaching:* The use of contracts with these students in an integrated class is a good way of individualizing the learning activities to meet all students' needs. Provide a list of choices (more than needed), teacher and student select five of the potential activities together and sign a contract specifying the time element, grade stipulations and any other considerations the two feel should be included. This type of contract means that the activities and objectives are clear to both student and teacher. These students, as well as other students, are then competing only with themselves.

25. *Family Reinforcement Activities:* The best examples for a family activity which can be used is teaching family finances by helping these students use an allowance or preparing food by actual hands-on activity in the home. These activities should be followed by telling the child he did a good job, when he did, to promote self confidence. The list is endless! Families have so much to contribute. A teacher should utilize this valuable resource by calling parents, sending them a newsletter -- letting them know what is happening in the classroom.

26. *Learning Centers in Classrooms:* These centers are interest centers located in a specific area of the classroom. They can have everything from A to Z about a topic. Include in learning centers books of low vocabulary that these students can read. A book which contains attractive pictures on the topic (pictures are worth a thousand words!), a tape and earphones to listen without disturbing, a filmstrip and projector are helpful for the teaching process. Teacher creativity is the key here!

27. *Media:* Using newspapers, radio, television, video-taping, etc. Any alternative ways of presenting a concept to these students are worthwhile. Everyone likes variety and media offers students variety. These students as well as others have different learning styles. Media offers assistance to a variety of learning styles.

The classroom teacher should remain sensitized to the unique learning characteristics of these students and provide a variety of teaching strategies in the classroom. The teacher may want to scan this list and select appropriate strategies to be used in teaching each unit of instruction. The conscientious teacher is challenged to search and explore alternative teaching methods in the classroom.

VALUES CLARIFICATION

Lynda West

Background Information, Rationale: Values are revealed in virtually all choices and preferences one makes. Through decisions an individual makes one alternative which is seen to be more worthy, to have more value, than the other possible alternatives. Choices, therefore, are directed by the values one holds. A person's values are fundamental forces acting upon behavior and thus are basic guides directing one's life.

Values are dealt with unavoidably each day either consciously or unconsciously. What the teacher says and does (content, discussion topics, examination questions, activities, classroom rules of conduct) indicate a value system to the students. Whether a teacher consciously tries to teach value education or not, it is virtually inescapable. Many variables influence the process of value development by individuals. The most important influences include those of parents and home, by peers and by teachers and schools. Historically, one expected function of the school in particular, has been the development in children of values the community wishes to perpetuate. This understanding has been implicit in the citizens' support of their community's school, and involves a portion of the socialization process of students as "good citizens" in their community.

Definition: Goodman (1973) mentioned that value has been defined by Louis Raths and Sidney Simon, leaders in value education, as "a personal guide that gives direction to life, helps to relate to the world and take purposeful action" (p. 40). Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966) identified seven processes involved in valuing. When a person values something he:

Chooses:
1. freely
2. from alternatives
3. after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative

Prizes:
4. cherishes, is happy with the choice he has made and is
5. willing to affirm the choice publicly

Acts:
6. does something with his choice
7. repeatedly, in some pattern of life

The Content of Values Clarification: The Values Clarification approach, according to Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum (1972) is a systematic, applicable way of assisting students and teachers as well as in answering questions to help build a value system. It does not try to impose a particular set of values - it is not content oriented, rather it is concerned with the process

of valuing. The focus is on how people obtain certain beliefs and establish certain behavior patterns.

There are various modes of thinking and acting. Students learn to weigh the positive and negative consequences of various alternatives. This is a very important procedure for the educable mentally retarded to learn.

Values clarification is a process which helps people arrive at an answer. It is not concerned with an ultimate set of values (that is for you to decide) but it does stress a method to help you determine the content and power of your own set of values. It is a self-audit, and an inventory of soul and spirit. A tool to help you freely decide between alternatives or among varied choices. It is a methodology to help you make a decision, to act, to determine what has meaning for you (Simon, 1974).

There are groundrules to follow when using strategies:

-you always have the right to pass

-every answer is the right answer for that person at that time

-the leader will do everything asked of participants

-the leaders will not call on individuals for answers, individuals may volunteer personal answers if discussion seems appropriate

Some of the basic strategies found to be effective in inservice programs with adults and in classrooms with students are:

-values questions, where the individual answers yes, no, maybe, sometimes or always

-incomplete sentence where the individual completes the thought

-rank ordering, where the individual forces himself to prioritize

-simulations, where individuals have an opportunity to practice decision-making, pro-lem-solving and discovering alternatives.

-forms, where an individual can fill in segments of a form that will provide the individual with some awareness of his/her own values

The following example of a values clarification strategy is from Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students, cited to give an idea about the types of activities involved:

THE PROUD WHIP

Purpose: Past experience has proven it to be one of the most used and most valuable strategies employed by teachers who have been trained in value clarification. Therefore, it is called to the reader's attention by focusing on it as an independent strategy. It helps students become more aware of the degree to which they are proud of their beliefs and actions and this will encourage them to do more things in which they can take pride. Students also hear new alternatives from their classmates' lives.

Procedure: The teacher asks students what they have to be proud of in relation to some specific area or issue. The teacher whips around the room calling upon students in order. Students respond with the words "I'm proud of. . ." or "I'm proud that. . ." Any student may pass if he chooses.

Sample Questions:

1. What is something you are proud of that you can do on your own?
2. What is something you are proud of in relation to money?
3. What are you proud of that has to do with school?
4. What are you proud of about your gift giving?
5. What are you proud of in relation to your family?

To the Teacher:

It should be emphasized that the type of pride called for here is not the boastful, bragging kind of pride, but the pride that means "I feel really good about. . ." or "I cherish. . ." this aspect of my life. The teacher must be very supportive of those who pass. No one should be expected to be proud of everything. Sometimes the teacher deliberately selects an issue that he has to pass on, just to illustrate this point. EMR students should be encouraged to volunteer to bring in topics for the Proud Whip.

Values Clarification: Its Relationship to Project PRICE: Trainers of school personnel should take a look at our personal values and attitudes regarding mental retardation. Everyone needs to know where they stand about having EMR students in regular classes, obtaining certain occupational positions and how to work with other staff members with contrasting attitudes and beliefs.

Focus on values clarification has a two-fold purpose: (1) to shed light on the values, attitudes, preferences that PRICE Trainers need to look at:

a. something to aid trainers in dealing with staff attitudes and values,

b. to provide some clarification regarding individual values on such issues as mental retardation and career education.

The second focus is to provide trainers and participants with some activities/ strategies to use in the classroom to help students (whether they are regular or special students) bring clarification to their own value system.

Another way in which value education topics touch Project PRICE is in that it functions as a cohesive thread throughout the list of 22 competencies and sub-competencies. Values can be seen in many of the skills, i.e., Family Living, Achieving Self-Awareness, Selecting and Planning Occupational Choices. Certainly values clarification is essential to problem-solving, decision-making, marriage responsibilities, making friends and numerous other topics to be found throughout the three domains, Daily Living Skills, Personal Social Skills and Occupational Guidance and Preparation.

PRICE Trainers should utilize values clarification in developing a capacity to really listen to others, to understand others' viewpoints, and to communicate meaningfully and effectively. It is an interaction which can spur intellectual development, insight, awareness and humanization among trainers and participants in the future programs.

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THE PRICE COMPETENCY UNIT

Donald J. McKay

Introduction

Project PRICE shares the belief that meaningful curriculum development should take place in the local school system. The success of curriculum alteration depends on the degree to which affected teachers are directly involved in determining what types of changes should occur. "Grass roots" participation by educators in determining curriculum goals, performance objectives, instructional support systems and evaluation enhances the feeling of "ownership" and acceptance of curriculum modification.

The purpose of this paper is to describe a procedure to follow in developing career education instructional units for EMR students. Hopefully, this curriculum development experience will result in the participants developing a feeling of ownership toward the completed instructional unit. This ownership feeling should then provide the impetus necessary to cause an improved and permanent change in providing career education for EMR students. The unit of instruction to be developed for the delivery of career education to these students is referred to as a PRICE Competency Unit of instruction (PCU).*

The PRICE competency based curriculum has identified numerous basic skills necessary to survival in the careers of these students. The stated competencies explicitly describe the skills needed by these students. This approach allows a shift of emphasis from the traditional content (knowledge and information) curriculum toward a process (skills or competency) curriculum. In this career education curriculum development, the key question is, "What skills are needed to make the student a more effective individual?" This approach allows the designated PRICE competencies to become the curriculum goals for these students.

Infusion -- A Change Process

If the goals of Project PRICE are to be achieved, new methods must be examined for providing relevant career experiences to these students within

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*Major credit is given to Mr. Harry N. Drier, Jr., Research and Development Specialist, Center for vocational Education, Ohio State University for the genesis of this paper. The format and general development of the PCU concepts were primarily the result of Mr. Drier's energy.

a career education context. Therefore, a change process known as infusion is supported which implies a pouring in of something which gives new life, new vigor or new significance. Therefore infusion as it relates to the Project PRICE model refers to the procedure of integrating career development concepts within the curriculum based on the career development needs of these students. The PCU idea in Project PRICE is an effort to provide career education experiences for these students within the mainstream of ongoing education. The PCU infusion approach will result in developing a comprehensive set of instructional units which concentrate on all 100+ PRICE subcompetencies.

The PCU's are designed to be infused into the curriculum of a specific class. The PCU should not be viewed as a curriculum designed to replace what now exists, but rather as a specialized lesson plan for these students to be integrated into the existing curriculum in a way that will enahnce their learning. The eventual success of the PCU depends on the efforts of calssroom teachers and counselors to integrate and emphasize the PCU career development implications in the subject content of a particular class in which these students might enroll. The significance of infusion cannot be overemphasized. Successful infusion of PCU career concepts will be reflected by the degree of commitment given this concept by classroom teachers. An excellent guide which explains how to infuse career concepts into the classroom curriculum has been written by Dr. Gene Bottoms, et.al of Georgia. The guide entitled Career Education Resource Guide and published in 1972 by General Learning Corporation, Morristown, N.J., portrays a myriad of infusion ideas and techniques.

An example of infusing Foreign Service career information into a social studies class or instructional unit is portrayed by this guide. The career concepts, performance objectives, materials, Lesson Capsule and observations for this unit are specifically spelled out in the manual. The central problem in this unit focused on an imaginary black U.S. Ambassador to Sweden. Suggested topics of discussion included: (1) occupational preparation for the position, (2) prior occupational roles for such an assignment, (3) desirable personality and character traits, (4) problems of a black man in this position, (5) staffing a U.S. embassy abroad, (6) description of an imaginary day in the life of an ambassador (work role, food, transportation), (7) embassy employee salaries, (8) living costs and (9) expected life style in Sweden. Presentations of this

data included oral and written reports, flip charts, bulletin boards, scrapbooks, and other forms of media. Significant use of U.S. government documents, foreign consulates, Councils on World Affairs and library resources could be used for this unit of study.

PCU development will also concentrate on where student competency needs could best fit into current subject areas or guidance in the school. The PCU is to be developed in logical segments so it can be used whenever the experience seems most appropriate for these students. PCU's should be developed with ease of understanding as the goal. This will allow classroom teachers to easily adapt/adopt the ideas without spending an extensive amount of time in preplanning-Writers of competency units need to consider such factors as student needs, time, space, resources, peer support and adult-community support.

The PCU approach will allow educators to make judgements relating to proper infusion within the overall curriculum. Two important tasks must be considered in the development and use of PCU's. First, the relationship among PCU's must be established to determine where effective infusion into the total curriculum could occur. Secondly, the progression of skill development and application of knowledge may also need refinement as the PCU's are used in any sequence. Ultimately, each PCU will have special characteristics to assist educators in meeting the career development needs of these students.

In summary, PCU's should: (1) provide an organized method of teaching a subcompetency using an individualized approach, (2) assist in developing a career oriented instructional plan which can be infused into the curriculum and (3) allow the individual teacher to develop increased ability to provide a more relevant education. The PCU clearly defines an important subcompetency which these students should acquire in school.

Suggested Procedure for PCU Development

A PCU is a curriculum guide toward competency development in areas considered crucial to student life-role success. Guide elements such as Performance Objectives, Activities, Strategies and Adult/Peer Roles should be clearly stated to insure student competency attainment. The Performance Objectives will specify immediate desired skills to be achieved. The remainder of the PCU is a sequentially organized plan which provides the roles/strategies for achievement of the stated objectives.

When developing a specific performance objective, a major consideration should be given to the students for which the PCU is written. The developer must identify and analyze the unique characteristics of the students participating in the unit. This information will determine the skill level of the written objectives in the PCU. The developer should then make a decision as to where the PCU can best be learned (school instruction, home instruction or community instruction).

If the PCU is to be learned in the school setting, the next decision would be to determine the most appropriate classroom subject in which to infuse the curriculum plan. When the appropriate subject area is identified, advisory persons might be used to provide additional help regarding infusion techniques and in developing additional objectives needed to acquire the stated subcompetency. When agreement has been reached by PCU developers in regard to specific objectives and subject area for infusion processes, a unit plan should be developed. This plan could include possible methods, school resources, community resources and additional criteria in an attempt to determine how to teach the stated objectives and subcompetencies.

The PRICE Competency Format

A major focus of Project PRICE is the 22 competencies identified as the skills which these students need to acquire before leaving high school. These competencies have been segmented into subcompetencies. The PRICE Competency Unit format (PCU) is essentially an organized method of teaching a subcompetency to these students.

The PCU is a short, concise two-page plan for educators to use in providing a relevant curriculum. The unit contains six basic components. A teacher may discover that the PCU is a very adequate guide for teaching a designated subcompetency.

The PRICE master plan includes having each of the field test schools participate in developing PCU's for all 100+ subcompetencies. The basic format of the PCU includes the following components:

1. Domain -- Identification of the competency area. The three domains in the PRICE model include the areas of Daily Living Skills, Personal-Social Skills and Occupational Guidance and Preparation.
2. Competency -- The skill or goal which the student will acquire. There are 22 PRICE career competencies. Skill acquisition of these competencies will provide a comprehensive career education for EMR students.

3. Subcompetency -- More specifically, what the student is to learn. The subcompetency is the block of curriculum material from which the PCU is derived.

4. Performance Objectives -- Concepts contained within the subcompetency. These objectives are the components that explicitly state small behaviors to be achieved by EMR students which will result in the acquisition of the subcompetency. Performance objectives should contain four basic elements: including or specifying (1) the learner, (2) observable terminal behavior, (3) the conditions under which the student will perform the behavior and (4) the criterion standard or level of acceptable learner performance of the stated behavior.

5. Activities/Strategies -- Methods used to teacn the subcompetency. This component lists actual techniques, ideas, processes and tips that will be helpful in achieving the stated subcompetency. This component should emphasize acquiring process procedures (skills or competency), not content (knowledge and information).

6. Adult/Peer Roles -- Ways in which others can provide support activities or assist with learning. The purpose of this element is that EMR students can gain much skill development from daily contacts with non-EMR students and adults.

An example showing PCU development appears in this paper as Appendix A.

Summary

The format suggested in this paper has been developed by PRICE and can be revised as it is tried and used by various groups. No matter how well planned the PCU's may seem, educators should be prepared to revise them or modify the format. Goals and objectives that are currently necessary may become insignificant in the future. Flexibility and adaptability are the key words in developing successful PCU components in a career education program for EMR students. The final product will not be available for dissemination until the end of the final project year, June 1977.

Domain: Daily Living Skills

Competency: 1. Managing Family Finances

Sub-Competency: 1.1 Identifying Money & Make Correct Change

Objectives	Activities/Strategies	Adult/Peer Roles
The student will be able to:		
1. Identify various forms of currency by size & denomination.	· Students practice with authentic money · Students construct money puzzles · Students quiz each other with money flashcards · Students construct displays or posters of money with magazine cut-outs & pictures	· Parents/peers practice currency identification with student · Parents/peers devise questions/games that allow student to identify the varieties of currency from memory
2. Count money in coin & bill denominations.	· Students devise buying/selling games utilizing play money · Students use structured money games (ex:(Monopoly) · Students count out varying amounts of play money to each other · Class bulletin board demonstrates money in relation to numbers	· Parents/peers give student different denominations & ask for particular amounts in practice exercises · Parents allow student to count out the necessary amounts of purchases while shopping
3. Demonstrate ability to make correct change from both coins & bills.	· Students operate a "store" & "bank" to practice making correct change · Role-play situations in which students must make change · Class identifies all possible situations where knowledge of change-making would be important · Field trip to a store, where students observe change-making done by cashiers or the bank	· Teller or cashier demonstrates skill in making change · Parents allow students to give money to salesperson for purchase, receive, & count change · Parents/peers role-play "customer" while student role-plays "clerk" using real or play money
4. List ways in which money is used in society.	· Field trips to stores, restaurants, banks, etc. where money is exchanged for goods or services · Classroom role-plays of purchasing · Class collects experiences in which money is important · Bulletin board illustrates the uses of money · Class discussion on the use of money	· Parents take students on shopping trips & discuss use of their money · Representative of a local bank discusses the uses & storage of money · Parents discuss ways in which the student will utilize money in future life

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Part IV

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

LOCATING INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES FOR CAREER EDUCATION OF EDUCABLE MENTALLY RETARDED STUDENTS

Judy McElmurry and Susan Miller

An important objective of school programs for EMR students is to provide experiences that will enable them to become occupationally adequate adults. For a teacher to most effectively provide these experiences, it will probably be necessary to use instructional materials in the classroom. Although the teacher may be aware that media and materials can make the presentation more realistic for these students, there may be a problem in locating the necessary media and materials. Therefore, the teacher may decide that the best means to provide appropriate classroom instruction materials is to develop them herself.

Teacher-designed materials can often be the best means of providing appropriate classroom instruction. However, time constraints often make it difficult to rely solely on materials which the teacher has developed. It may also be difficult to develop materials to provide concrete experiences which are so necessary in classrooms for the educable mentally retarded. If the teacher decides that it is not feasible to make her own instructional materials, she must locate appropriate commercially prepared materials.

The services available to educators relative to instructional materials for these students will vary from state to state. Some states have developed an organized network of instructional materials centers. (These facilities may also be called other names, such as educational service centers, learning resource centers or educational resource centers.) Other states have no organized network of centers; however, they may have locally developed centers.

Not only do the services vary from state to state, they also vary within each state. A center may provide one, several, or all of the following types of services: loan of instructional materials, in-house inspection of instructional materials, descriptive information about instructional materials, evaluation information about instructional materials, in-service training, prescriptive assistance with materials selection, or publisher's information (i.e. names and addresses of publishers, ordering procedures, or price information).

At the national level a new network of centers has replaced the former Instructional Materials Center (IMC) Network. The new Learning Resource

Centers (LRC) Network has been established by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH) of the U.S. Office of Education. The overall objective of the LRC Network is to assist the handicapped child in achieving social and vocational independence via an appropriate education. There are several components of the LRC which are directly or indirectly involved with media and materials for the handicapped.

One component is the Area Learning Resource Center (ALRC). There are thirteen ALRC's in the nation. The role of each ALRC is to assist the states within its region in developing an intrastate capacity to develop instructional materials, media and educational technology services to the handicapped learner. The Midwest ALRC which serves Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Arkansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma and South Dakota is located in Des Moines, Iowa. The Great Lakes ALRC serving Minnesota, Wisconsin, Indiana and Michigan is located in Lansing, Michigan. The addresses of these Centers and other services are located in Appendix A.

The Specialized Offices are another component of the LRC Network. Specialized Office 1 (S_1) is for the blind and visually impaired; Specialized Office 2 (S_2) is for the deaf and hard of hearing; Specialized Office 3 (S_3) is for those students with other handicapping conditions. These three offices will focus on locating, evaluating, and developing materials for these handicaps. A fourth Specialized Office (S_4) serves as a depository for materials which will be made available for loan on a national basis.

The National Center on Educational Media and Materials for the Handicapped (NCEMMH) was established to encourage the use of up-to-date educational technology, media and materials by teachers and administrators who work with handicapped students. NECMMH is also funded by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped.

One function of the Center is to disseminate the information about curriculum and instructional products, both for child use and teacher or parent training. NCEMMH also determines the needs of teachers and operates as a liaison with various agencies and organizations. In addition, the Center cooperates with commercial producers and other product developers and facilitates distribution of media and materials.

NCEMMH does not provide direct services to handicapped persons. It provides information and assistance to the Area Learning Resource Centers,

four Specialized Offices, and State Departments of Education.

The National Instructional Materials Information System (NIMIS) is being designed and implemented by the NCEMMH in conjunction with the Area Learning Resource Centers and the four Specialized Offices. NIMIS is a computer-based retrieval system specifically developed for the purpose of assisting teachers and other educators in locating information about instructional materials in the field of special education. Until now, there has been no nationally coordinated system for identifying materials and for the sharing of common information across regional and state boundaries. The creation of NIMIS is a positive step toward obtaining, organizing, storing, and retrieving this information in a manner which is most useful, cost efficient, and accessible to the target users. NIMIS will provide descriptive information concerning instructional materials, teacher-training materials, and measurement and evaluation materials.

Materials in the NIMIS data base which are not available from local, metropolitan and state learning resource centers will be entered in the Specialized Office for Materials Distribution (S_4). This office will serve as a depository for child-use and teacher-training materials. Those materials tested and accepted by Specialized Offices 1, 2, and 3 will be entered into this depository and made available for loan on a national basis through the ALRC's.

Before using NIMIS, teachers should first consult their local, metropolitan, or state learning resource centers to determine whether appropriate instructional materials are available from them. If not, then requests can be directed to the ALRC serving that state. NIMIS computer terminals have been operational since 1975.

If the teacher's search for information about the location of appropriate instructional materials is unproductive at the local and state level, national resources are available. Locating appropriate instructional materials for the educable mentally retarded may require some perseverence on the part of special educators. However, continued efforts to provide appropriate experiences and training will enable these students to become a productive part of society.

APPENDIX A

Area Learning Resource Centers/Specialized Offices

Region	Center
1	Northwest ALRC University of Oregon Clinical Services Building 3rd floor Eugene, Oregon 97403 (503) 686-3591
2	California LRC 600 S. Commonwealth Ave. Suite 1304 Los Angeles, CA. 90005 (213) 381-2104
3	Southwest ALRC New Mexico State Univ. Box 3AW Las Cruces, N.M. 88003 (505) 646-1017
4	Midwest ALRC Drake University 1336 26th Street Des Moines, Iowa 50311 (515) 271-3951
5	Texas ALRC Univ. of Texas-Austin College of Education Bldg. 1912 Speedway Austin, TX. 78712 (512) 471-3145
6	Great Lakes ALRC Michigan Dept. of Education P.O. Box 420 Lansing, MIchigan 48902 (517) 373-9433
7	ALRC #7 Educa. Media & Info. Serv. Dept. for Exceptional Children Illinois Office of Education 100 North First Street Springfield, Illinois 62777 (217) 782-2436
8	Ohio AlRC 933 High Street Worthington, Ohio 43085 (614) 466-2650
9	Northeast ALRC 168 Bank Street Highstown, N.J. 08520
10	New York State ALRC 55 Elk Street Room 117 Albany, New York 11234 (518) 474-2251
11	Nat'l LRC of Pennsylvania Ansley Building Old Easton Road Doylestown, PA. 18901 (215) 265-3706
12	Mideast ALRC University of Kentucky 123 Porter Building Lexington, KY. 40506 (606) 258-4921
13	Southeast LRC Auburn University/Montgomery Montgomery, Alabama 36109 (205) 279-9110 ext. 258

SERVING ALL ALRC'S

NCEMH Coordination Services for ALRC's
Nat'l Ctr. on Educational Media & Materials
for the Handicapped
Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio 43210 (614) 442-7596

Special Office for Visually Impaired (SI)
American Printing House for the Blind
1839 Frankfort Ave. Box 6085
Louisville, KY. 40206 (502) 895-2406

Special Office for Deaf and Hard of Hearing (S2)
University of Nebraska/Lincoln
175 Nebraska Hall
Lincoln, NB. 68588 (402) 472-2141

Specialized Office Three (S3)
467 Wisc. Research & Devel. Ctr. for Cognitive
Learning
1025 W. Johnson St.
Madison, WI. 53706 (608) 263-7851

Special Office for Materials Distribution
Indiana U. Audio Visual Ctr.
Bloomington, In. 47401 (812) 337-2853 Main
(812) 337-1551 Circ.

COMMUNITY RESOURCE UTILIZATION IN CAREER EDUCATION FOR EMR STUDENTS

Donald McKay

Jerome Bruner, the famous learning theorist, has said that American youth are "knowledge rich and experience poor". Gene Bottoms, a noted career education expert from Georgia, has stated that "hands-on" or practical experiences provide the basis from which interests are derived. One of the best methods for youth to acquire experiences and interests leading to career competency development will come from actual "try-out" in the real world.

One of the best ways to try out or provide hands-on experiences to EMR students is to utilize the community as a classroom. Cramer (1974) in delineating the major concepts of career development strongly supports this ides and states that career education is "a structure whose desired outcome necessitates cooperation among all elements of education as well as among the school, industry and community (p. 403)." The earlier and more often these students can test their knowledge, skills and attitudes in a real life situation, the easier it will be for them to develop interests, reasonable life goals, and career competencies necessary for career survival. The school cannot adequately provide these career experiences. Therefore the community must join with the school and become involved in the education process for these students living within their communities.

No two communities are identical in demographic composition. However, all communities possess the resources of people, places and things. The people are involved in a variety of occupational roles which depict the production of goods and services in the community. The community has things which are depicted by materials, tools, facilities, and equipment which can be used to enhance learning. Communities also have an abundant supply of ideas which can be incorporated by the school to achieve career education goals and objectives.

Arrowship and Cobb (1975) mention that a career education community involvement program should be primarily directed at involving parents, business and minority groups. A secondary thrust would be directed at such interests as civic clubs, news media, local government agencies, social service groups, and special interest groups. Efforts expended toward these groups will focus

at this time concerning concepts, various processes, activities,mproducts manufactured, interesting facilities and preconceived ideas held toward the particular business or industry. Upon returning to school, the teacher and students can discuss the many facets of the business which was observed. The discussion should include tools, materials, equipment, facilities, and worker reactions to the questions asked by the students. This experience s should provide increased student vocational maturity and positive feelings toward the community.

Governmental Agencies

Several levels of government are found to be functioning in nearly every community. The city, town and local government perform certain roles while the county, state and federal government perform other tasks. Governmental agencies offer employment to a great number of people. The people and the agencies aan easily become a viable force in facilitating the career development of these students. Many government employees are engaged in collecting data and information which can be shared with the schools upon request. Governmental agencies will include such organizations as:

Vocational Rehabilitation
Bureau of Indian Affairs
Immigration
Social Security Administration
Veteran's Administration
Employment Services
Job Corps
VISTA
Neighborhood Youth Corps
Community Action Program
Law Enforcement Agencies
County Commissioner
Taxation Agencies
County Extension Agent
Military Service Representative
Parks Department
Welfare Offices
Motor Vehicle Bureau
Agricultural Extension Agent
Public Health Nurse
Fish and Game Commission
Adult Basic Education Program
Parent-Teacher Associations
Migrant Programs
Correctional Institutions
Mental Health Agencies
Sheltered Workshops
Governor's Commission for Employemnt of the Handicapped
Planned Parenthood

Community Service Organizations

The service organizations in communities can contribute to career development of these students in several ways. Certain agencies provide work experience programs, food, clothing, used toys, eye glasses, and a corps of built-in volunteers to assist the schools in a variety of ways. Service groups may offer one-time-only educational experiences but they provide

an opportunity to better understand the community, its problems and the various agencies serving the community. Service organizations will include such groups as:

YMCA
YWCA
Red Cross
League of Women Voters
Urban League
American Legion
Veterans of Foreign Wars
Salvation Army
Heart Association

Civic Clubs

Civic clubs can make valuable contributions in providing career experiences for these students. Because most civic clubs promote community growth and development they advance the idea of quality education as a vehicle to community improvemnet. These clubs, usually comprised of community business leaders, usually have access to information and materials helpful to career education programs and projects. The types of assistance rendered by these civic groups are usually limited only by the imagination of the membership or the educators making requests for career education experiences. Civic clubs found in most communities include:

Chamber of Commerce
JAYCEES
Rotary Club
Kiwanis
Civitan
Elks
Lions
Business & Professional Workers
Knights of Columbus

Special Resources, Private, Non-Profit and Volunteer Organizations

Every community will have several organizations that will be labeled as "special" and cannot be categorized into any of the previously mentioned groups. Yet, these organizations have the potential resources to make a significant impact on the career development of these students. Frequently, these resources may be located closer to the classroom than any other community agencies. This category also includes activities and programs which EMR students may enjoy. Many of these resources are organized as programs on a volunteer basis, but frequently provide career-skill development experiences. The organizations in this category are usually non-profit, but the potential of their resources should be explored by the innovative educators Organizations in this category include:

Airports
Weather Stations
Colleges
Universities
Monasteries
Mental Retardation Association
Churches
Hospitals
Nursing Homes
Libraries
Museums
Goodwill Industries & other Rehab. facilities

on eliciting cooperative assistance generating public support, and encouraging direct involvement in career education. The various community resource components, along with ideas of possible assistance for educators will now be discussed in more detail.

Local Job Market for EMR Students

Work goes on in every American community. The local occupational structure should become readily accessible to EMR students for observation, study, try out, and actual work experience. A comprehensive card file system should be developed listing the local job market skills and occupations available to these students. The file of occupations might be developed by contacting local business and industry by telephone interview. Adult family members related to these students could also be surveyed to determine occupational potentials. Parents and other community members can be invited to the classroom to talk about occupations. Field trips, occupational units of study, simulated work experiences, and work-study programs are possible which can benefit these students.

Increasingly, schools are using the community in the capacity of providing work sites to provide on-the-job occupational training. The school must assume the responsibility for approving the work stations and assigning these students to the employer. These work-study programs, in many instances, provide meaningful experiences to add relevance in a ragular academic program. Successful work-study programs provide a balance of both work and study. The goal is to coordinate classroom theory with on-the-job training for these students.

Work-study programs require an extensive amount of coordination between school and community employers. Close supervision is needed to make sure these students develop appropriate competencies in work role behavior. Isaacson (1971) interprets work experience programs in terms of fulfilling three basic objectives which include: (1) mastery of specific job skills, (2) acquiring knowledge of work roles so as to perform intelligently with judgement; and (3) acquire the necessary personal-social traits needed to perform successfully on the job and in the community.

Local Business and Industry

The most common way to use the local business/industry resources is by field trips through which EMR students can learn and observe first hand on-the-job activities. The teacher should make initial contact with the business representative prior to the visitation. Details of the trip can be discussed

Veterans Groups
Boy Scouts
Indian Guides
4-H Clubs
Private Mental Health Institutions
Girl Scouts
Campfire Girls
Big Brothers

Conscientious educators can readily observe that the community has a vast number of resources available to use in career education curriculum for these students. Educators must strive to more fully utilize community resources in career education. Strategies must be devised to inform and invite the community to become a viable component in the career education process. Educators will discover that by involving the community, they can expect to receive the following information and/or assistance:

1. Names of speakers to discuss occupations, lifestyles, and careers;
2. Names of personnel who could serve as classroom, shop and lecture resources;
3. Names of speakers to describe business/industry and other organizations;
4. Names of personnel willing to serve on career education advisory committees for the local school;
5. Persons available to counsel and tutor these students, to sponsor part-time employment, work-study and cooperative education;
6. Sources for display, material, mock-up, models;
7. Available surplus equipment and materials for schools, shop and laboratory;
8. Available company or governmental agency libraries for use by teachers and students;
9. Plant, store and business guided possibilities;
10. Organizations willing to conduct world-of-work workshops for educators;
11. Organizations providing summer employment for educators;
12. Available films, filmstrips, and other media;
13. Available job descriptions for kinds of work perfomred in the community;
14. Available scholarships and awards for needy students/ educators and
15. Available equipment and material for school use on either donated or loan basis (Nail, et. al., 1975).

An important reason for involving the community in career education for students is that, in addition to exposing educators to community resources available to schools educators will come face-to-face with employers and government agency personnel. In this manner, first-hand knowledge can effectively be obtained as to how these agencies can participate in providing career experiences for

these students.

Drier and Norton (1975) advocate more effective and extensive community involvement. They cite seven major benefits to be derived from increasing school-community cooperation. The more obvious benefits are:

1. Skilled resource people in many areas of interest;
2. Donated materials and equipment which the school cannot afford;
3. More instruction related to real world activities;
4. Students are more aware of local career opportunities;
5. Students are more adequately prepared for employment or future education;
6. Students are more "turned on" to relevance and importance of education for a career;
7. Students are more mature in attitudes and values toward work and workers.

The impact for relevant education because of the school-community partnership can be tremendous. When the relationship of career survival skills learned and the application of these skills can be more fully understood, a greater sense of insight into their future career roles can be experienced by these students. Community involvement offers one of the best and most inexpensive ways of improving career education programs. Many of the community involvement strategies can be implemented with little or no cost to the school district.

There is ample evidence that schools have not been meeting the career needs of these students. Their formal education has many times been terminated prior to acquisition of adequate career survival skills. Worse, EMR students have been short-changed in regard to meaningful and relaistic career experiences. This void has resulted in leaving them with little or no understanding of their own interests and career capabilities. This situation can be improved. A competency based career education format can be infused into the existing curriculum. This curriculum, after providing supplemental experiences in the community, will help to make education more "real" for these students.

Career education depends on community resources. Career education must radiate out of the classroom and into the community. This approach is crucial to program success. Although each community is different and resources vary, each community can offer a wealth of real experiences. Community involvement can provide the avenue for exploring and finding a satisfying future. Career education should be the vehicle that lets the community know what is happening in educating these students, which ultimatley will culminate in increased community support for career education.

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FAMILY CONTRIBUTION TO CAREER EDUCATION

Lynda L. West

Together, the family, school, and the community can work to provide the development of the 22 skills known as the PRICE competencies. That is why PRICE workshops include participants from various discipline areas including home economics, physical education, music, industrial arts as well as counselors, administrators, central office personnel, community representatives, and parents. In an effort to bring career education to educable retarded students, PRICE believes parents should meet with the other influences in their children's lives so "the left hand will know what the right is doing."

Other desired products of uniting the parents, school and community interests include: a better working relationship, reciprocal understanding, awareness of philosophies and problems and forming common goals for these students. Home and school need to support each other to be most effective; consistency with children is crucial. The world is full of confusion, life is constantly changing. Even supposedly well-adjusted adults have difficulty coping with the changes of pace. For the educable retarded student, security and stability are vital environmental characteristics. By providing both parents and educators with some common goals, techniques, experiences, and philosophies, it is hoped that these students will be provided with the necessary consistency and stability throughout their educational experiences, in the home and in the community.

Project PRICE feels that parents can assist their children in various aspects of career education by providing hands-on experiences, developing career awareness, developing skills, providing a secure psychological environment for the child and working in cooperation with the school through an organization or volunteer work.

The following list identifies ways in which the family can provide direct instruction and support activities, in addition to what the school and community can offer.

Daily Living Skills

These skills are readily applicable for development by parents and other family members of the EMR student, and can be included in routine activities

within the home. Here are some examples of how this might be done:

1. Managing Family Finances -- One of the simplest ways the family can assist the student in this competency is to provide numerous experiences in identifying money correctly and to allow the student to make purchases returning with the correct change. Depending upon the student's maturity and ability level, managing a weekly allowance is a possible ongoing activity. This coincides with the competency Achieving Independence.

2. Selecting, Managing and Maintaining a Home -- Using basic appliances and tools is a subcompetency where the family provides direct instruction. Maintaining a home is usually a daily activity. Therefore, modeling will be beneficial, but participation is helpful training for this competency and ultimately leads to the student becoming self sufficient in this area.

3. Caring for Personal Needs -- Dressing appropriately is a subcompetency which can be dealt with directly in the home. This does not mean picking out the student's clothes for him, but rather assisting and discussing the choices about dress. This competency also encompasses basic hygiene and grooming which can be fostered in a variety of ways in the home by discussion, practice and encouragement.

4. Raising Children, Family Living -- These skills include successfully modeling the responsibilities and life styles of marriage. Parents can place emphasis on the importance and responsibility of carrying out these competencies and can provide instruction and practice in basic safety practices as well.

5. Buying and Preparing Food -- Since this competency includes selection, purchase and preparation of food, and the family's daily routine includes all of these processes, this competency is easy to demonstrate in the home. Explanation, discussion and practice can be directly supervised by the parents and can include having the student purchase food at the grocery store. Reading newspaper ads can help the student become a wise consumer.

6. Buying and Caring for Clothing -- The student should be involved in the entire process of choosing clothing within a given amount of money to spend. Responsibility for caring for one's own clothing should also be encouraged. These responsibilities will change as the student grows.

7. Engaging in Civic Activities -- This competency involves informing the student of basic laws, rules and regulations in the local community, taking him to different organizations appropriate for his ability and maturity level, and exposing him to the variety of activities available within the community. Parental involvement can provide strong motivation for the student to become involved in civic activities and his community.

8. Utilizing Recreation and Leisure -- Parents can familiarize the student

with recreational facilities and ways to spend leisure time. Parents can engage in recreational/leisure activities with the student and encourage him to choose activities within his bedget. Allowing the student to join in family planning for outings or a vacation can foster the student's interest in using recreational time wisely and develop this competency further.

9. Getting Around the Community (Mobility) -- Assisting the student in becoming familiar with public transportation and practicing its use are common ways families can assist students in achieving mobility. Parents may explain the various safety rules while the family is in the car and help the student practice driving the car when he is capable of assuming this responsibility.

Personal-Social Skills

The family will be intimately involved with helping the student acquire all of the Personal-Scoail competencies. Yet, because these skills are abstract in nature and each family's life style is different, the activities possible are too numerous to list. This will depend a great deal upon the methods and techniques the parents feel most comfortable in using. Here are a few suggestions which offer a sampling of ways the family can be of assistance.

10. Achieving Self Awareness -- Helping the student understand himself better is difficult and abstract. Parents must identify their own opportunities to provide assistance and support in helping the student identify his own emotions, needs and interests. Discussions, not lectures, are important here. Remember, "self" awareness is the key.

11. Acquiring Self Confidence -- Encouraging the student, giving support, placing parental confidence in him and discussing confidence itself will make the student more aware of how necessary it is. Parents can help the students understand and accept criticism and use it to improve themselves. Jumping to the student's defense is not always the best policy. Building on the student's strengths is a good policy.

12. Achieving Socially Responsible Behavior -- Parents can discuss, observe, foster and reinforce this competency within the family setting. Numerous family and other social situations can provide good learning experiences for this competency. Consistency in the consequences for both the appropriate and inappropriate behavior should be the guiding principle. Praise should be used and is as important as criticism.

13. Maintaining Good Interpersonal Skills -- Parents model this competency daily in the home. Discussion of interpersonal relationships with the student can help make him aware of the importance and rewards of good interpersonal relationships. Relations with people should be emphasized and encouraged and practiced in the home setting.

14. Achieving Independence -- Parents promote this competency by encouraging the student to participate in a variety of activities that foster and demand independent thinking. Making the student responsible for his own behavior and giving the student confidence that he is able to carry out responsibilities are the basic techniques that parents can use in helping the student achieve independence. Allow time for growth in this area. Independence is often difficult to attain after a period of dependence.

15. Achieving Problem-Solving Skills -- This is a difficult competency for everyone. A retarded student needs constant awareness and practice at decision-making. Parents can work with the student at home and help facilitate this skill. Familiarizing the student with alternatives and making him aware of the consequences are important so the student will not be surprised at the results of his decisions.

16. Communicating Adequately with Others -- Practice and modeling of effective communication skills provide direct instruction for the student. Parents may help the student understand the subtleties of communication by discussion and practice recognizing non-verbal cues.

Occupational Guidance and Preparation Skills

The Occupational Guidance and Preparation competencies are more limited in the direct participation in the home, though not without some obvious beneficial potential for the educable retarded student.

17. Knowing and Exploring Occupational Possibilities -- Parents may provide the student with occupational possibilities available within the local community. The family could visit some job sites to see workers in action. Familiarizing the student with the different types of occupations opens an ongoing process which can be promoted by parents as well as teachers.

18. Selecting and Planning Occupational Choices -- Parents may help the student identify his various strengths and weaknesses, interest patterns and other aspects which can help him clarify and recognize his potential and match it with realistic goals. Directing the student to people who are qualified to help him make these decisions is often the best way parents can help the student attain this competency.

19. Exhibiting Appropriate Work Habits and Behaviors -- Parents can place emphasis on appropriate work behaviors that are valued in our society and that the student can practice at home as well as school. These desirable habits can be built when the student assists with chores at home and will help determine occupational success for the student.

20. Physical-Manual Skills -- Parents may provide activities in which the student may practice balance, coordination, endurance, sensory discrimination and dexterity. Any games, exercises and activities which the student can perform at home will provide practice and skill in attaining this competency.

21. Obtaining a Specific Occupational Skill -- Parents may direct the student to a place where he can obtain specific training for a skill. This may mean assisting him enroll in a local vocational-technical school or directly training the student in the student's interest area providing the parent has expertise in that area also.

22. Seeking, Securing and Maintaining Employment -- Parents may help the student in seeking and securing a job and do whatever they can to assist the student adjust to an occupational role. However, essentially this competency relies upon the student to develop adequate work adjustment behaviors.

Summary

With a cooperative effort between parents and educators, skill proficiency will be significantly enhanced for the educable retarded student. Direct instruction, practice and reinforcement are necessary from the home as well as at school.

These suggested activities only begin an endless list of ways parents and family members can assist the EMR student to become a self sufficient person. This self sufficient person is capable of fulfilling many roles; citizen, worker, family member and parent if the 22 competencies are acquired before graduation from high school. Some of these skills are difficult for well adjusted and educated people to attain, therefore if an EMR student is to acquire these skills, he must be provided with plenty of opportunities for practice and acquisition.

MEDIA

Cheryl Anderson

Media is considered by some to be anything which aids the learning process. Gerlach and Ely (1971, p. 282) define media as ". . .a person, material or event that establishes conditions which enable the learner to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes." In this paper, media will be considered as including the materials, and/or equipment which a teacher uses to facilitate learning. This paper will discuss (1) the categories of media, (2) criteria to consider in selection, (3) properties to consider in use, and (4) the types of media most often used in instruction. Hopefully, this paper will provide clarity in selection and usage of media. It is difficult to place media into distinct domains because of media overlap, but generally, there are four categories which include verbal media, visual media, simulations and equipment.

In verbal media, the words are the stimulus to learning. They can be either oral or printed. Teachers use verbal media to identify the problem, give directions, reinforce activities and evaluate the results. Examples of verbal media materials would include textbooks, handouts, workbooks, audio tape and recordings, oral directions and explanations.

The second category, visual media, id defined as a representation of an object from the real world. These representations can be realistic or symbolic. Teachers use visual media materials in developing concepts. Often it is important for students to experience objects visually before they can grasp the idea behind or the meaning of the concept. Examples of visual media would include slides, motion pictures, filmstrips, transparencies, mounted still pictures and three-dimensional models.

The third category is simulation. This is a replica of a real life situation made to be as much like real life as possible. Examples of simulation include games which simulate historical or cultural conditions, role playing situations, and mockups. Simulations aid teachers in giving students experiences dealing with the abstract.

The fourth category in media is the equipment which is either needed to produce the materials or to display the materials. Most mediated experiences are a combination of these categories. Teachers must be aware of this when

selecting media to use in instruction.

When selecting the most effective media to use, a teacher must decide what the student is to learn. After the instructional objectives have been established, certain criteria which applies to the selection of media must be considered. The first is appropriateness. Will the media chosen accomplish the defined objective? There are no hard and fast rules that will place a specific type of media in a specific situation, but these suggestions may help. When affective behaviors are desired, simulated situations, recordings, role playing or actual field experiences are most effective. If the objective is to impart factual information, oral instruction and textbooks with visuals are satisfactory. Demonstrations, self instructional packages and programmed learning lend themselves to the teaching of procedures. Media which incorporates motion such as movies and television are effective in teaching subjects which require the learning of perceptual motor skills.

Another criterion to consider is the level of sophistication of the student or audience. Will the students be able to understand the media presented? Factors to consider before deciding which media is best suited for a certain age level are vocabulary, development rate of the content, type of visualization and approach. Often the problem with commercially prepared media is that these factors are simplified to make the media more marketable. The result renders the product useless for the upper grade levels.

Cost is another important criterion to consider. What is the cost of the media in comparison to the potential for learning? Can the same results be achieved using another material which is less expensive? Commercial products can be very effective, but at the same time can be very costly. Schools usually have money to rent materials, but they also have money to produce materials. With a little know how, most teachers can make their own transparencies, slides. recordings, filmstrips and even video-tapes and motion pictures. The advantage of self made materials is that a teacher can develop these to fit exactly into their curriculum. It is often difficult to find appropriate commercially commercially prepared materials that are readily available for classroom use. Schools have limited supplies of equipment and materials. If rental is necessary, often it is difficult to get the material or equipment at the time it is needed. Rental can also be very costly.

Finally, teachers must consider the technical quality of the medium. Is the material readable, visible or audible? Poor technical quality can actually interfere with the learning process. Commercial materials are usually high in quality, but it is a good idea to preview these prior to purchase or use. Knowledge and careful planning are requisites when designing quality, self-made materials.

Media has three properties which need to be considered in its selection and use. The fixative property allows the capture, preservation and ability to review objects or events. Media which demonstrates this property includes photography, film, audio tape or video tape. The manipulative property permits the object or event to be used in a variety of ways. This is often referred to as editability which means that the content can be condensed and simplified. Two very editable media forms are film and audio tape. The distributive property means that the media can be reproduced and transported so that the same message can be used in a number of classrooms. Television, film, audio recordings and textbooks are all examples of materials which are highly distributive. These three properties should enable teachers to understand why media is used and what can be accomplished.

There is a wide variety of media materials available to teachers. Most of these can be used with a number of teaching strategies such as group lectures and individualized instruction. The types of media include realia, still pictures, graphic representation, printed materials, motion pictures and videotape, audio recording, programmed instruction and simulation.

Realia includes people, field experiences, events, objects and demonstrations. Realia presents the student with real life. Teachers can turn to their community to find people and experiences which will enrich their students' learning. These experiences are usually readily and economically available and there is no reason not to use them when they fit into the curriculum.

Still pictures include photographs, slides or filmstrips. They are a record or a copy of a real life object or event. Teachers can either purchase these already prepared or they can take their own still pictures using a camera. Illustrations from books can be copied with the use of a copy stand. Film processing can be done commercially.

Graphic representations are drawings, charts, maps, graphs, etc. which are used to communicate an idea. Examples would include illustrations from books

bulletin board displays, or several transparencies. It is possible to copy illustrations using projection and reduction techniques. Transparencies can be commercially prepared, but these are too easy to make. Photocopies can b made from books and then run with specially treated film through a thermal copy machine to produce transparencies. Another method is to hand draw on acetate with permanent markers. Bulletin board displays have been used for years to motivate students to learn. Teachers generally collect pictures from magazines to use for their displays. It can be a meaningful learning experience if the students are allowed to design the board.

Printed Materials are perhaps the most widely used form of media. Textbooks and workbooks are purchased from publishers, but handouts are usually made by teachers on their school's duplicating equipment. Visuals as well as text can be incorporated on the handout and transparencies can be made from the master by using frosted acetate.

Motion pictures and Videotape record a moving image in color or black and wgite. This image can be live or animated. Techniques which can be incorporated a e sound, slow motion, time lapse and stop motion. Sixteen millimeter films are usually commercially produced and are either purchased or rented. Super 8 mm film is relatively inexpensive so it is possible for teachers to produce their own instructional films. Videotape equipment is also becoming available to the classroom teacher. Portable equipment makes self production possible. Also, videotape programs are available to teachers through their community educational TV channel. These programs come with curriculum guides so that they can be coordinated with classroom activities.

Audio Recordings include records or recordings on magnetic tape. These can be commercially prepared or self made.

Programmed Instruction involves sequencing information in small steps so that the student will elicit a predetermined response. The learner must give a response before obtaining new information and is given immediate feedback as to the correct answer. Some programs contain built-in remedial work for children who are having difficulties. This allows the students to work at their own pace. Workbooks and textbooks are the type of media that is commonly programmed.

Simulations were discussed before. These are replicas of actual situations. Simulations include games, role playing, and mock-ups in which the student is

supposed to experience the situation as it is in real life.

It is easy to see why media is considered to be anything which aids the learning process. The categories verbal, visual, simulation and equipment cover every material a teacher might use to instruct and motivate students. Words, pictures, slides, film, books, recording, models, even the blackboard are all considered media. Effective selection and use of media starts with the teacher's instructional objectives. The teacher must then determine the appropriateness of the media, the level of sophistication of the students, the cost in comparison with the potential for learning, availability and technical quality of the media. The teacher must also determine what is to be accomplished by the media.

Preservation, review, editability and distribution are the properties that need to be considered. Using this as a rationale, the teacher can choose the most appropriate type of media such as still pictures, realia, printed materials, motion pictures/videotape, audio recordings and simulations. Media combinations can be used in a variety of teaching situations. There is nothing very mysterious about media, it is just a new name for things teachers have been using for years. Media specialists have only attempted to make the selection and utilization process more systematic.

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Part V

EVALUATION

THE ROLE OF EVALUATION IN THE PRICE CAREER EDUCATION PLAN

Donald J. McKay

Evaluation, for a significant number of educators, is a frequently misused and poorly understood concept. If innovations such as Career Education for EMR students are to survive and flourish, it is imperative that data be collected which provides proof that the program does, indeed, make a difference for students. Hence, the need emerges to develop a systematic evaluation component for the ongoing Career Education program. The evaluation component should reveal both formative (process) and summative (program or outcome) data.

Simply stated, a comprehensive evaluation component will determine the degree of success in achieving stated program goals and objectives. To more fully recognize the underlying concepts of evaluation and closely related terms, a short narrative is included to explain the differences. More specifically, the differences between testing, measurement and evaluation will be explained in an attempt to assist the reader to better comprehend the role, rationale, and function of educational evaluation.

Testing

The term "testing" is usually associated with a systematic procedure of observing a person's behavior. The subject of testing is a controversial term in regard to interpretation. Ahmann and Glock (1971) have portrayed testing to be a component of measurement because it yields only quantitative representation of a student trait. Tuckman (1975) argues that "tests are tools that are useful in a number of processes such as evaluation, diagnosis or monitoring" (p. 12). His argument is that testing can include more than numerical interpretation and can be a measuring device used to find something out about a person. Tuckman's reasoning allows verbal appraising instruments to be included as a test instrument. This expanding definition would include such devices as inventories, questionnaires, opinionnaires, and scales to be called "test" instruments.

Seven basic tenets for testing are advocated by Tuckman (1975) which are: (1) Simplicity for ease of understanding; (2) Formulation of educational objectives prior to the development of testing instruments; (3) Testing as a part of the educational process which can help teachers help their students; (4) Provides a source of data for instructional feedback and evaluation; (5) Not restricting

testing to those things that are easy to test, but try to assess creativity, etc.; (6) Avoidance of always using tests to compare students to each other; and (7) consistency with the kinds of instruction and the kinds of learners which the test will appraise. In the final analysis, educational testing is an attempt to gather student data with a lack of high subjectivity included in the process.

Measurement

Basic educational measurement concerns itself with obtaining a quantified or numerical representation of a specific trait. Educational measurement tends to concentrate on a narrow, specific, and well-defined characteristic and then attempts to determine the degree to which that characteristic is possible (Ahmann & Glock, 1971). Remmers, *et. al.* (1965) mention that measurement is limited to observation that can be expressed quantitatively and answers the question "How much?". Tuckman (1975) states that "measurement is a broad term that refers to the systematic determination of outcomes or characteristics by means of some sort of assessment device" (p. 12). The assessment of student competency, educational processes, and career education program outcome or results is facilitated by measurement.

Evaluation

The term "evaluation" in many instances is misinterpreted to have the same meaning as measurement or testing. Ahmann and Glock (1971) succinctly explain the difference between the terms when they write ". . .measurement is a process that attempts to attain a quantified [numerical] representation of . . .a trait" (p. 12). The authors continue in their discussion mentioning that evaluation is a process used to arrive at a value judgement based upon information derived from several sources. Evaluation may or may not be based on measurement. Evaluation utilizes data derived from both quantitative and qualitative sources. However, the validity of evaluation judgements are usually enhanced if wuantitative devices are used in the evaluation process.

Remmers (1965) explains that evaluation extends beyond the more restricted concept of measurement and concerns itself with "What progress am I making?" Evaluation presupposes a definition of goals to be reached. Therefore, whether the evaluation process is aimed at EMR students, the instructional processes or the school career education program, specific objectives must be established to

provide a basis for decision-making related to the degree of achieved success or failure. The concept of failure is mentioned because the processes of evaluation are wasted effort unless the discovered weaknesses are corrected. Simply satted, educational evaluation is the process of obtaining and providing useful information for making wise educational decisions.

PRICE Evaluation Design

The basic evaluation for Project PRICE follows the formative (process) and summative (program) evaluation model advocated by Scriven (1967). This evaluational "systems approach" scheme was selected because of its global approach to appraise an educational innovation. The "systems" approach has replaced the older "curriculum evaluation" model. This is because of the emphasis placed on evaluation as being a major force in creating the PRICE educational program in addition to determining the value of the program. The PRICE evaluation plan includes three areas of data collection which are important to project success.

These three areas are: (1) collecting baseline (antecedent) data; (2) collecting process (transaction) data; and (3) collecting program or product (outcome) data. Baseline data is necessary to establish a benchmark or reference point, from which to observe educational growth in both educators and EMR students which has occured as a result of the stated PRICE program goals and objectives. Process data is necessary to provide immediate and observable feedback at the completion of each workshop. This information is used in making workshop additions, deletions, or modifications which in turn promote PRICE workshop success. Lastly, program data is necessary to the overall terminal success of Project PRICE. The focus is on the degree of success or failure of Project PRICE at the completion of three years.

In addition to the three major data collection areas in the PRICE evaluation plan, several pervading elements in Project PRICE will be examined to determine whether or not the project did make a significant difference for these students and involved educators. These elements can be generally classified into three categories;

1. Assessment of student competency development as directed by the PRICE Career Education model;
2. Assessment of the comprehensive efforts or impact which PRICE has made on the pilot school district; and

3. Assessment of the total PRICE project success or failure in regard to various criteria such as cost, materials, equipment, personnel, usability, and individual components providing relevant/valid information to potential users.

Assessment of Student Competency Development

This category of appraisal is concerned with determining to what degree these students are acquiring the competencies and subcompetencies which comprise the PRICE career education program. The central emphasis will be placed on establishing baseline data as to the present level of skill proficiency exhibited by these students. This level is determined before any instruction is given related to the competency based PCU curiiculum format advocated by Project PRICE. The evaluation instrument for this determination has been developed by PRICE staff. After this data has been gathered, classroom teachers will be encouraged to begin infusing PRICE career education concepts into their existing curriculum for the benefit of these students. This category will probably more directly involve and be of more interest to classroom teachers than the two other categories.

Because of direct teacher involvement, evaluating the progress of these students will become a significant issue. The evaluation question arises, "How do I evaluate these students and assign a grade if they lack reading and writing skills?" The PRICE staff challenges the teacher in this dilemma to seek out new modes of evaluation other than a written paper and pencil test. Reread and analyze the true meaning of student evaluation as portrayed in the early section of this paper. Student evaluation does not confine itself to a number score assigned as a result of a mathematics test or any other test taken on a given Friday afternoon.

To assist PRICE participating teachers in assessing these students, a list of potential evaluative techniques are included in this paper as Appendix A. A creative teacher will be able to adapt several of these techniques to use as evaluation tools in the classroom. Additionally, in this Working Paper, another paper deals specifically with several of these techniques in greater detail. A point to remember is that comprehensive evaluation will include the domains of cognitive knowledge, psychomotor skills, and affective attitudes.

Assessment of Project PRICE Effects in the Local School System

This category is concernes with determining the impact which PRICE has made on the cooperating pilot school systems. Several evaluation instruments have been developed for every pilot school in the project. The evaluation will be conducted by the designated Local Evaluation Coordinator at each cooperating school district.

This assessment will include indicators of status or changes in the knowledge, skills, attitude, commitment behaviors of school staff and community feedback regarding the school career education program for these students. The central thrust of this evaluation includes appraising participants during the PRICE workshops and at intermediate checkpoints during the school year.

Assessment of Project PRICE Program Outcomes

This category of appraisal is concerned with determining the degree of overall PRICE program success. This involves analyzing the accomplishments for each of the project's stated goals and objectives. In this manner, each pilot school can review their degree of success associated with the PRICE staff development model components. Data derived from this evaluation can be used in forming decisions regarding adoption, rejection, or modification of a portion or all of the PRICE model.

The basic criteria to consider in determining program success will include such outcomes as: (1) EMR student performance; (2) School staff performance; (3) Side effects of the program; (4) Program feasibility in terms of cost, materials, equipment, personnel and (5) Extent to which the PRICE program provided relevant, valid data to the cooperating schools.

These results will provide important data to potential educational consumers concerning PRICE program success. The outcome data will also provide promising activities to be incorporated into other staff development programs throughout the nation.

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APPENDIX A

POSSIBLE EVALUATION TECHNIQUES TO BE USED BY CLASSROOM TEACHERS FOR ASSESSING EMR STUDENT BEHAVIOR IN THE DOMAINS OF KNOWLEDGE, SKILL AND ATTITUDE

Two main categories: (1) Observation (2) Tests

Observation Techniques

1. rating scale
2. anecdoted records
3. ranking scales
4. case study
5. self appraisal devices
6. autobiographies
7. professional observation
8. play therapy
9. follow-up studies
10. student conferences
11. scaled data: graphs, charts, percentiles
12. scattergrams
13. expectancy tables
14. projection techniques
15. student projects
16. token economy
17. peer evaluation
18. personal data sheet
19. questionnaires (program-service)
20. student daily record
21. sociometric tests
22. sociometric patterns
23. cumulative records
24. student-kept cumulative records
25. student-parent conferences
26. group guidance (orientation-therapeutic)
27. child study program
28. attitude observation
29. behavior modification
30. modified test procedure (test, re-test)
31. health records
32. utilize community agencies
33. check lists
34. administrative records
35. informed teacher reports
36. student interviews
37. projective techniques
38. study habit interview
39. sociodrama/psychodrama
40. discussion groups
41. role playing
42. audio-video devices and feedback
43. computer assisted devices
44. gaming
45. simulated experiences
46. student input/contracts

Test Techniques

1. scholastic aptitude
2. special aptitude
3. achievement
4. interest inventories
5. personality adjustment
6. reading ability
7. indiv. interest battery
8. oral tests
9. open ended sentences
10. criterion referenced
11. skill performance tests
12. identification tests

These

These techniques are devices to be employed to obtain data from students which will provide the basis upon which sound judgements and evaluations are made.

ALTERNATIVE TECHNIQUES OF CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT: POSSIBILITIES FOR EVALUATING EMR STUDENTS IN THE CLASSROOM

Martin C. Salamack

One of the more difficult tasks of the classroom teacher involves the evaluation of students on presented material. On all educational levels, teachers must devise measurement techniques that assess both the student's comprehension of and ability to utilize the information. Very often, traditional testing techniques have attempted to funnel down tremendous amounts of subject material into concise, objective (quantitative) tests that measure student competency solely in terms of the letter grade earned on that test. In doing so, teachers may be excluding from the evaluation vast amounts of what students have learned from them only because they are attempting to measure performance in quantitative terms. This is particularly true for EMR students, whose reading and writing skills are limited, thus further complicating the possibility of adequately assessing their progress.

It is beneficial to observe the difference between the concepts of evaluation and measurement before proceeding into any alternative forms of testing. Evaluation is a process that encompasses the domains of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, while measurement is more of a procedure that examines the domains of knowledge, skills and attitudes, while measurement is more a procedure that examines a fixed characteristic or body of information. ALthough the concepts overlap in many areas, it should be noted that evaluation indicates a more fluid, multi-faceted form of observation than does measurement.

The intent of this paper is to portray alternatives for student evaluation procedures in the classroom that would de-emphasize quantitative grading techniques and move toward a more flexible process for both the student and the teacher. This paper has listed a number of techniques that can be used by teachers. It would be most difficult to measure a student with an A, B, or C using these techniques. However, the teacher, by utilizing any one or a combination of these techniques can better assess the student's development by tapping areas of knowledge often not sampled in tradtional tests. Utilizing alternative forms of classroom evaluation, the teacher may obtain a more complete sense of the student--both intellectually and emotionally.

Role Play

The teacher defines objectives to be learned (vocational, educational, social, etc.) and establishes criteria for evaluation. Evaluation can be done by the teacher establishing a checklist form for grasp of concept, use of available information previously presented, enthusiasm, or any other dimension the teacher desires to measure. Scales of most to least extremes, with responses in between could be utilized (see Appendix A). The teacher can create a student form where the viewers of role play evaluate it in terms of what they learned from it.

Case Conference

The case conference should yield recommendations in regard to specific students and/or to the improvement of the system. Objectives can be set in terms of what variable is to change (example: reading speed); what treatment shall be utilized to effect change; and who will deliver such treatment; how long a time for the treatment to be continued; and criteria for measurement (retest for reading speed). The personnel could then evaluate how effective their recommendations were and the degree of change in the student.

Token Economy

A classroom can be evaluated on the group cooperation toward a given goal (points amassed by a class to earn a special privelege are measureable units). Secondly, the number of tokens that the individual student amasses are measureable. Baseline data can be established and subsequent information can be compared to that initial information showing changes over time.

Behavior Modification

A particular behavior that can be pinpointed (example: speaking in class), a treatment program can be established, baseline data could be obtained, and at the end of the treatment period data regarding change could be obtained. Rewards can be administered to apply to in-class or out-of-class situations.

Tutoring

These students can be evaluated on any number of measures of academic achievement (example: Thorndike-Lorge Vocabulary Test) where potential deficiencies exist. After the tutoring program, readministration of test materials would show the effectiveness of the tutoring process.

Student Input

These students and the teacher can decide the general information to

be evaluated for all students. Various options of how the information is to be grasped by the student can be presented. The student would make the choice as to what he wants to do for the grade and how much work he is willing to do for the grade. A contract (agreement) as to these things can be signed by the student and the teacher. An evaluation can follow this strategy.

Special Interest Projects

Students can define their special interests in a particular area by doing a project. Their project can be evaluated by the teacher devising a scale on comprehension of major concepts, utilization of other information, ability to generalize from the specific to the more general, etc. The teacher may also devise a scale that would be given to each student assessing what they have learned from the individual's project. Field trips and tours would seem to be excellent sources of project material.

Informal Observation

The teacher can devise rating scales that evaluate the presence and degree of intensity of any number of factors (examples: peer interaction, approach/withdrawal from novel situations, etc.). Checklists of descriptive words (Example: helpful to classmates) and scales rating students from one extreme to the other of particular tasks or attributes would allow teachers to fit observations into a more evaluative framework. Several observers using the same scales in a variety of situations (or observing the same situation) would give further depth to the observational techniques (see Appendix B).

Modified Test Procedure

Teachers can give pretests on presented information that gives him an idea of the student's strengths and weaknesses and allows for changing teaching priorities to meet particular needs. Use of the actual test as a pretest item could be done, with the readministration after the completion of the lesson.

Individual Counseling Sessions

The student may be evaluated prior to and after individual counseling experience by any number of psychological tests (example: Q Sort, adjective checklist, sentence completion, etc.). Teachers and counselors can monitor the student's behavior by rating scales during and after counseling, showing direction and degree of change.

Student-to-Student Teaching

The teacher can pair an "advanced" student with a "behind" student to facilitate learning. Prior to beginning this, the teacher can evaluate the level of the "behind" student's performance with either standardized test or teacher-devised instruments. After a specific time tests can be administered or alternative forms of evaluation could be used to measure the degree of change.

Parent Conference

The teacher can use observed data regarding the student after conference. Parent conference can allow the teacher to involve the parent in the educational process with specific exercises that will enhance the student's mastery of the subject matter. Behavior modification systems that incorporate home and skill can be devised where behavior at school equates to certain positive consequences at home.

Autobiography

The student can be presented with certain structures to follow in writing (example: "What kind of person am I?"; "What do I hope to become?", etc.) or they may just write in whatever perspective they feel most comfortable. The student may better present themselves graphically. For example, the student can draw a coat of arms of their lives, filling in various areas of the shield with: the things I do well, the proudest moment of my life, etc.

Games

The teacher can take subject matter and transform it into a game that calls upon student's knowledge and ability to utilize it. Games can be devised for either an individual student, or groups, or teams of students. Evaluation could be made on the basis of winning, or how close the students come.

A separate category for testing (intelligence, personality, achievement etc.) has not been included at this time, as it is beyond the scope of this paper and is separate enough to warrant a separate examination.

It is easy to ennumerate alternative evaluation techniques; it is another thing to use them in the classroom setting. The classroom teacher, already burdened down with work, may feel that the above presented, or any other techniques are not within the realm of possibility given existing schedules, student load, classroom situation, etc. Very often qualitative evaluation is more time and energy consuming than quantitative measurement. However, teachers are challenged to reassess their classroom structure and include these techniques whenever

appropriate, either as a supplement to some form of quantitative measurement or as a method in itself. Hopefully, the teacher will be able to find that the evaluative information previously unnoticed will better come into focus along with an expanded perception of where the student is and where the student can go.

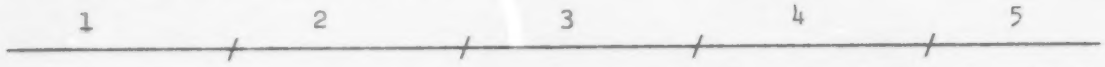
APPENDIX A

EXAMPLE OF A RATING SCALE FOR A ROLE PLAY SITUATION

Theme to be role played is a job interview with a potential employer:

Evaluation Scale for Role Players

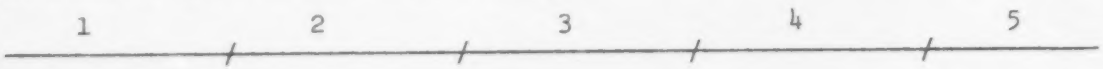
Student understands concepts to be utilized:



Good understanding

No understanding

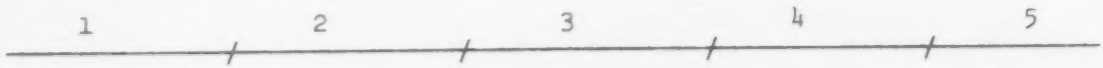
Student utilizes and connects learned concepts:



Good integration of several concepts

Unable to connect two or more concepts

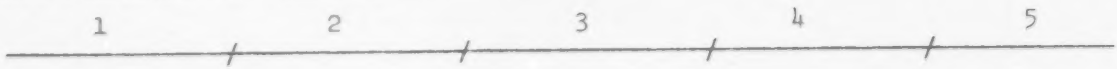
Student projects his/her self into the role play:



Student shows enthusiasm and imagination in presentation

Student goes through the motions exerting minimum energy

Students demonstration benefits the class:



Student's performance helped the class better understand the designated concepts.

Student's performance has little impact on class.

APPENDIX B

EXAMPLES OF RATING SCALES FOR VARIOUS CONCEPTS[1]

Self-Expressiveness

Talkative	1	2	3	4	5	Silent
Active	1	2	3	4	5	Stationary
Peppy	1	2	3	4	5	Indifferent
Busy	1	2	3	4	5	Idle
Animated	1	2	3	4	5	Stolid
Eager	1	2	3	4	5	Listless

Behavior Problem

Problem	never occured	occured once or twice, not more	occasional occurence	frequent occurence	SCORE
Lying					
Bullying					

Attitudes toward Authority

/	/	/	/	/
Defiant	Critical of Authority	Ordinarily Obedient	Respectfully complies by habit	Entirely resigned to all authority
(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)

Ability to Work with Others

/	/	/	/	/
Quarrelsome, uncooperative, upsets morale	At times difficult to work with	Ordinarily cooperative, tactful and self controlled	Always congenial and cooperative	Usually a strong factor in cooperation and group morale

[1] Rating scale samples are from Warter's Techniques of Counseling, McGraw Hill, 1964, pp. 44-47.

EPILOGUE

This Working Paper is the last to be written during this three-year project period. If Project PRICE is refunded for an additional year, there may be future publications of this nature.

The PRICE Inservice Training Package to be delivered to the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped is presently being written in its final form. Its content differs slightly from what we outlined in Working Paper #7. It will consist of: (1) a Trainer's Manual to train trainers how to conduct PRICE workshops, develop a Career Education Plan and evaluate its components; (2) a Workshop Manual, for trainers on conducting the workshops; (3) a Self Study Guide, for workshop participants as a reference on important workshop topics; (4) a Resource Guide, for instructional materials, books, journals, agencies, organizations relative to Project PRICE and career education; (5) a Program Guide, for teaching the PRICE competencies/subcompetencies and (6) a Media Package.

The final PRICE Inservice Training Package is being written so that school districts can conduct the various workshop sessions in 2-1/2 to 3 hour modules as well as the field tested four-full-day approach.

We are hopeful that the package will be available to the general public by early 1978.

February 1977

Donn Brolin
Project Director